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# THE NEW ERA

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January to December, 1932



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# THE NEW ERA

## IN HOME AND SCHOOL

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### Outlook Tower

NO one now denies that science should be taught in schools. To this extent, at any rate, even the most conservative of our schools have caught up with the times. Even in curricula that cling most loyally to the old traditions, some time is allotted each week to the class-teaching of elementary scientific principles, and to their verification in the laboratory. Difficulties and prejudices have been swept away under stress of necessity.

*Effect of Teaching of the Exact Sciences* As Professor Huxley points out, it is the older and more thoroughly formulated sciences that are mainly taught. The basic principles of physics and chemistry have been learnt by several generations of schoolchildren—as school generations go. And this formal teaching has been supplemented by practical experience in the handling of cars and wireless and domesticated electricity. The result of this would be astonishing if it were not so universal as to appear a commonplace. The ordinary citizen takes a half intellectual, half imaginative interest in such subjects as astronomy and cosmology, which without a school grounding in mathematics, chemistry and physics would be a sealed book to him. This argues a great widening of the interest and understanding of the man-in-the-street.

If then it be granted that the normal school course of to-day gives an outlook which enables the ordinary individual to interest himself in such abstruse matters as the structure of the atom on the one hand or of the universe on the other, it should not be denied that a similar background of biology would throw open to his thought and comprehension many questions vital to the well-being and progress of the race.

#### *Need for the Teaching of Biology*

Modern society is lamentably ignorant of the basic principles of the biological sciences. It seems strange to have reared a race that knows far more about motor mechanics than about human physiology. The schools dare not leave this state of things to right itself, for it is not only an anomaly but a menace. A mechanically-minded generation has made life more wearing to nerve and tissue. It is now up to the schools to ensure a biologically-minded generation, who will counter this wear and tear by a proper knowledge of the principles of good living.

It will be seen in the following pages that this task is already being faced in some schools. Mr. Macdowall has drawn up an admirable scheme of non-specialized science teaching, based throughout upon long years of teaching experience. He has built up on a basis of physics and chemistry a course which resembles somewhat the subjects dealt with in former times under the heading of 'Natural Philosophy'. This latter contained, it is true, very little biology, for it existed in the days before biology was recognized as an important branch of scientific knowledge, but it did give some idea of natural phenomena as all being part of a whole. It achieved the inclusion of a certain scientific knowledge in the scholar's general outlook on life, and it is just this scientific bias in facing the biological problems of civilization that we now require in our ordinary citizens.

Miss Drummond deals with the question of science teaching in girls' secondary schools, and it is good to find a specialist catering so sympathetically and adequately for the non-specialist. Miss von Wyss shows how Nature Study should form a vital approach to science for young pupils. Mr. Slavson, known to many



readers of the *New Era* for his work at the Malting House, pleads for science as a subject which can whet the curiosity and develop the pertinacity of young children. Some of his examples are most illuminating, and show what can be accomplished by the right kind of approach. Mr. Jones shows how courageously South Africa is facing the problem, and Mr. Rayment and the headmasters who follow him, show how, in the rural schools, a general science course may be extended to cover the whole field of primary education. Here, in simple form, the aim that we are urging is being achieved. The children are learning how to tackle the difficulties of the everyday life of a rural district in a scientific spirit.

It should not be difficult to enable men and women to regard their personal lives and the life of the nation in this same spirit. So many general problems depend for their successful solution not only upon highly trained specialists but also upon scientifically enlightened public opinion. Problems of feeding, housing, the prevention of disease, and sanitation, to name only a few among many, will only be solved when specialist knowledge is reinforced by the pressure of public opinion, once it is awake to their importance.

Dr. Dale in his lecture, 'Biology and Civilization',\* stressed this aspect of the problem when he asked: 'How shall the demand for biology be created, to which education must in the end respond, while education continues to give us an administrative class with so little vision of the need for, and the central significance of, biological knowledge?'

*Science Teaching in a Groove* The trouble is of course that science teaching has drifted into a groove, or rather a vicious circle, which can only be broken by a change of heart both in the school and university authorities. As things stand, the heads of schools are obliged to try to ensure that the scientifically minded pupils will gain entrance, and if possible scholarships, to the universities. They believe (often with good grounds for the belief) that the teachers who can best ensure the gaining of scholarships are those with Honours Degrees. An Honours Degree in science demands

\* Norman Lockyer lecture to the British Science Guild, 1931.

specialization, and the science specialist trains specialists who will continue in this course until the system is somehow broken down. Meanwhile the child who will not become a science specialist is sacrificed in the interests of the few.

Further militating against the teaching of biology is the fact that at present the most useful subjects from the scholarship point of view are chemistry and physics. This means that there are comparatively few school posts open to teachers trained in the biological sciences. For this reason university science students intending to become teachers are warned off biology. From schools desirous of embarking upon such teaching there comes the complaint that there are no teachers available. And so we have established another vicious circle which has to be broken.

Probably the best way out from both of these difficulties is for the school authorities to accept, as Professor Huxley suggests, science teachers who have a good pass degree covering three or four sciences, on the understanding that the Universities will accept a wider and less specialized science training for their entrance and scholarship candidates. This will obviously be a benefit to the pupil who does not intend to specialize in science. The present fatal tendency towards the departmentalization, or, to coin a word, the 'compartmentalization', of science will be broken down. Physics and chemistry, when linked up with biology, will appeal even to the child whose main enthusiasm is for non-scientific subjects.

But by receiving a general science course up to the age of 16 or 17, the boys and girls who are to become science specialists will also benefit. In the first place there will be less risk of their becoming stale before embarking upon their university careers, and in the second there will be a wider field of choice from which to determine upon their specialized activities:

*Aims and Content of a General Science Course.* A general science course should include elementary physics and chemistry and biology, and the elements of human physiology and hygiene. People sometimes object that hygiene can be taught at home, but so can reading. Yet the schools have not excused themselves from



tackling the problem of the teaching of reading on that account, and neither should they shirk the teaching of hygiene. Some teaching in the laws of heredity, leading up to a sound and generalized teaching of eugenics, should also be given in the schools. We cannot afford to loose upon the world citizens who know many things but who have at their command no scientific habit of regarding their personal problems and those of the race. To quote Dr. Dale again, 'biology will need, and must claim, its full share of the highest type of

scientific ability that mankind, at its present stage, can produce; and men in general will need, and must be given, such educational opportunity as will fit them for intelligent appreciation of the facts that science may furnish. It may be that our far descendants . . . may look upon what we call our scientific era as a passing phase in human history, before man found the way of using biological knowledge to make his own species capable of a civilization beyond any that we imagine.'

WINIFRED C. CULLIS

## Biology—A Cultural Subject

PROFESSOR JULIAN HUXLEY, in an interview he very kindly granted to the *New Era* recently, put forward a strong claim for a General Science course in the schools. He deplored the fact that Science is mainly taught in watertight compartments, chemistry, physics, botany and zoology, each boiled down to a false simplicity and served up as bare bones. Science taught in this way is usually entirely divorced from the general texture of life; the facts so learned are dry-as-dust, or at most have only a spurious interest—the false excitement of 'stinks'. Through them the children can gain no real conception of the scientific attitude towards life.

Professor Huxley's idea is that biology should be treated as a cultural subject—as an essential part of general education, not merely as a technical subject. It should be learnt—as English and history are learnt—for the sake of its intrinsic interest, and as part of the necessary equipment of an educated man or woman.

Professor Huxley pointed out that there is, of course, a historical reason for the preponderance of chemistry and physics rather than biology in the schools. They are the older sciences, and were earlier reduced to a teachable form. The whole technique of teaching them, and of examining in them, has long been worked out, indeed Professor Huxley is inclined to think it has often been over-formalized and

with too much insistence upon practical work. To teach science purely from a text-book is obviously an even greater error, but on the other hand there is something stultifying about letting children imagine that science can be fully demonstrated in a test-tube.

In urging the claims of a general science course, Professor Huxley recognizes that he is likely to raise a storm of objections on technical pedagogic counts. Teachers object that the whole subject is too vast and too vague to be dealt with satisfactorily in schools. So much will have to be left out, they say, that what remains will leave little mark on the children's minds. Professor Huxley rejoins that of course much will have to be left out—but that this does not matter so long as the whole course be coherent and stimulating. He attacks, as a logical fallacy, the pedant's idea that all subjects must start from first principles, and that all learning must be done by building up from the simple to the complex. Many movements in modern education favour the analytic rather than the synthetic approach. Professor Huxley suggests that by starting from a highly complex but familiar structure, the human body, many important scientific principles can be established and their functioning demonstrated on the spot. For example, it is simple enough to lead directly up to combustion by discussing breathing, rather than leading up to breathing by discussing combustion. In the same way



you can get a long way in demonstrating the action of levers by a discussion of the movement of parts of the body, and there is no reason why you should not introduce the idea of energy through the problems of nutrition, and the circulation of energy through the body.

As regards the practical stages by which a general science course should be taught, Professor Huxley finds that they fall more or less naturally into three divisions: first, Nature Study, pure and simple, giving room for much enthusiastic observation. Full use should be made of the child's natural interest in concrete things, and it is most important that he should study not only plants and animals, but also physical geography, the seasons and the weather, and the sun, moon and stars, and so on.

The next stage should introduce children to the beginnings of scientific principles, and it should follow directly upon the first, with no intervening gap, such as tends to occur in many school curricula at present. Those principles are exact, and the children must learn to realize this exactitude. Yet they must realize it as a vital rhythm, not as a regimentation of dead facts, and it is perhaps at this stage that a general science course is most important, as biology forms a natural bridge between the exact sciences and the humanities. Such a course should include simple experiments in plant biology and a study of the life-cycles of plants and of some of the lower animals—so as to give some idea of the laws of reproduction. Professor Huxley recommends the inclusion of a certain amount of microscopic work, as he says that the microscope is a real revelation to the child of thirteen to fifteen years. The elements of human physiology should also be taught.

The third stage marks really the beginning of specialization, usually with a university course in view. Professor Huxley considers it important that those who intend to specialize should be given a chance to realize that many of the most valuable fields of research for the physicist and chemist of the future lie in the organic world. At present the biologist is obliged to have a background of chemistry and physics, and quite rightly so. But it has rarely been suggested, and never insisted, that the physicist and chemist should have a background of biology.

Students thus go up to the universities hardly aware of one of the most promising fields of research that their training will throw open to them.

Professor Huxley dealt finally with the practical difficulties in inaugurating general science courses. The first and more superficial of these is in connection with the preparatory school. Is it desirable that a paper on general science should be included in the Common Entrance examination? If so, how can we avoid reducing the matter to a crammable form and ensure its being a vital introduction to science? A second and more serious difficulty is, how are we to prepare teachers capable of visualizing and carrying through a general science course which will give a necessary mental discipline and yet will be stimulating to the imagination? Unfortunately, our present system tends to produce specialists who in their turn produce specialists. Thus there are lost to science many children of imagination, who turn rather to classics or the Arts; and from the point of view of the community, science makes little lasting impression on the children who grow up to be the man-in-the-street or leaders of national life. Many schools will only accept honours graduates on their staff, and the honours graduate in science is automatically a specialist, who is usually less useful as a school science teacher than the man with a good pass degree. In the University of London they have tried to get over the difficulty by inaugurating a General Honours degree that will cover as many subjects as the pass degree, only reaching a far higher standard in each. This course, however, involves such a large amount of work that it attracts few students. The only ready solution seems to lie in the schools' acceptance of a pass degree as the most suitable equipment for a science teacher, at any rate up to Scholarship standard.

Professor Huxley's final argument for the teaching of a good deal of biology in the schools is that chemistry and physics, if taught alone, give the pessimistic aspect of science, for one of their great generalizations is that the universe is running down. Whereas biology teaches that the progression of life as least is upwards, and this upward trend should be emphasized to the growing mind.





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# A School General Science Course

S. A. McDOWALL, B.D.

DESPITE the change which has taken place during the last twenty years, few of those who know the facts can be entirely satisfied with the position of science in school education. On the one hand we are turning out many specialists whose general education is far below what it ought to be, however considerable their scientific knowledge; on the other hand we still allow classics and historians to leave school with little or no real knowledge of science. With the one-sided and narrow specialist this article is not concerned. But it is worth while to consider why, after twenty years of discussion and serious experiment, there should be room for a feeling of dissatisfaction with the results of the general science courses designed for those who are not going to make science their chief study.

That such courses have had a considerable measure of success will not be disputed; that they have done as much as might have been hoped, and indeed expected, to broaden outlook and to strengthen reasoned judgment, will be confidently affirmed by few. Probably it is true to say that here, in just the most vital matter, they have had uncommonly little effect. We have given the ability to read about scientific discoveries with a superficial understanding; the ability to reason, to marshal evidence and weigh its value, and to form dispassionate judgments we have not given.

No doubt a teacher who is feeling his way is bound to proceed slowly by trial and error. Accustomed to teaching specialists, he will tend at first to give an emasculated specialist course. But he cannot take his pupils very far, and boredom may supervene. Himself a chemist or physicist, he will tend to regard science as adequately represented by these branches. In due course the reaction will come. The importance of biology will be recognized, and a biology course will become usual where it used to be exceptional and incidental. In order to dig itself in, biology will pay Dane-geld to the examiner and become a 'certificate' subject. This will mean that it is relegated to an early period in the curriculum, when its educational

value is small. The curse of the examination will be upon it, and a few more facts will be added to the store of the miserable Tom Toddy, to be forgotten as soon as the need for them is over. This is the present position, and I can conceive nothing more harmful to the status of biology or to the value of the general science course. (The third alternative of a science course so general as to be entirely unscientific needs but a short experience to prove its worthlessness.) In my opinion the limited success of general science indicates two things. The success attained is evidence of the need for such an element in our education; its limited nature shows the lack of a clearly-seen objective. We must go deeper than a mere recognition of the fact that the omission of all reference to the living organism is absurd, if we are to remedy our partial failure.

Having watched and taken part in the various developments of a general science course in a Public School for twenty-five years, I have accepted the invitation to give a brief description of the way in which we have tried to meet the difficulties, in the hope of being able to offer a few positive suggestions about principles. I am not foolish enough to think that what is sauce for the goose is necessarily sauce for the gander. A school where few boys leave before the age of eighteen and a half is obviously in a different position from one where most leave at seventeen. One is always up against the fact that boys acquire facts easily at an early age, mark time intellectually for a year, and only after that begin to acquire the faculty of correlation and generalization on a reasoned basis. (Of course there are as many exceptions to this as to any other sweeping statement.) The development of girls, again, does not keep step with that of boys. Detail must be modified to suit the special circumstances of each school; but I venture to assert that the root principles hold good for all. To avoid vagueness, then, I propose to state what is actually done in a school to which most boys come at an age  $13\frac{1}{2}$ – $14\frac{1}{2}$  and stay to an age 18–19.

When I first came as a very junior master



every classical boy did a course comprising physical geography, hydrostatics, heat, and chemistry lectures, and a certain number did a little physics. Thus the school was in advance of many; but the work was not fully correlated, nor continuous. The first change was the addition of a little laboratory work in chemistry. It became obvious that only a more organized course could be expected to yield much fruit. Gradually we elaborated a five-year scheme extending right up to the top of the school (hitherto the top divisions had done no science) in which the work should be continuous whatever promotions an individual might earn in his classical division. Calling the terms I, II and III from September to July, the work was next arranged as follows: 1st year, Terms II and III (2 periods) Physical Geography; 2nd year, Terms II and III (2 periods) Hydrostatics and Heat; 3rd year (3 periods) Chemistry; 4th year (3 periods) Physics, I—Sound and Light, II—Electricity and Magnetism, III—Molecular Physics; 5th year (2 periods), I—Principles and History of Science, II—General Biology, III—Evolution and Heredity, with some applications. If a boy started too high in the school he omitted Physical Geography, and inserted a course of Astronomy (I) and Geology (II and III) between the normal 4th and 5th year courses. During the 2nd, 3rd and 4th years (or 1st, 2nd and 3rd years if Physical Geography was omitted) there was regular laboratory work as well as lectures.

After a few years' experience of this scheme we agreed that, though the improvement was manifest, we were still not satisfied. We therefore met in order to discuss what we were really aiming at. The result of these meetings was a confession of faith followed by detailed syllabuses drawn up in the light of the general ideas at which we had arrived—syllabuses which were intended rather as guides than as enclosures, and which paid no attention to any specific examination requirements. Our train of reasoning was as follows:—

We have to decide first what is the purpose of the course, and next how that purpose can be best achieved.

There are three possible purposes: (1) to give some appreciation of the *results* of scientific advance, both intellectual and economic; (2) to

give some appreciation of scientific *method*, together with some direct training in observation, selection and reasoning both inductive and deductive, which other branches of education cannot so readily supply; (3) to combine (1) and (2).

Each possible objective was considered in turn; and the means by which it was proposed to reach the end in view formed an essential part of such consideration. We agreed that the historical method of approach must be employed to a considerable extent, since it is not possible to teach either scientific method or scientific results without this.

Space forbids even a summary of the general methods of approach to (1) and (2) which we set down; but our objections to them may be stated:—

To the first alternative the chief objections were that a course of science which is not based firmly upon experiment and scientific method is not science at all, and is in grave danger of superficiality and woolliness; and that only the technical experience, however elementary, of handling and using, can give the power of reading intelligently about scientific matters. Unless you really develop the scientific mind you cannot expect appreciation of the achievement, aims and outlook of the past and present leaders of scientific advance. The second alternative is open to equally grave objection. If you lay all your stress upon the learning of elementary technique and the solving of such problems as this technique can compass, the course of study will be too narrow and disjointed to give a really *general* knowledge; the facts will tend to remain in watertight compartments; and the relation of scientific method to the development of thought and of material civilization will not be grasped.

The fact that these two alternatives were open to objections of an opposite nature decided that a combination of the two methods ought to give good results. A general science course that had any chance of fulfilling its object should give enough training in the elementary technique of physics and chemistry at least, to enable the boy to appreciate the problems as real and concrete, and to make him understand that only a highly-specialized



technique, which must be left to those who are trained, can give further advance. Yet his experience will be sufficient to enable him to grasp the *kind* of way in which such advances are made, as he reads about them. The course must also give some conception of the history of man as representing his gradual mastery of his immediate environment, and his grouping of events into those which can be controlled, those which may in the future be controlled, and those which are probably beyond his control. The scientific aspect of history cannot be neglected; the whole course must have a humanistic trend.

Once this decision was reached, the rest was easy. The rather blind fumbling of past efforts had, in fact, resulted in a course which only required pruning and strengthening to fulfil the conditions which fairly careful thought seemed to indicate as necessary to success.

Simple phenomena must first be thoroughly dealt with, in the laboratory as far as possible, but with plenty of lectures and demonstrations to give breadth. Gradually the idea of applying the scientific method to concrete phenomena, and the potency of the weapon, will be brought home. Once this lesson is learnt, laboratory work can take a more subordinate place, though it should not be abandoned altogether, while the larger issues are faced. A young boy's mind can easily grasp facts; a boy of fifteen or sixteen is growing towards the grasp of methods and theories; but normally it is not until nearly seventeen that the power of correlating and generalizing develops. Consequently, too early stress upon the wider issues is a mistake. Detail must precede generalizing for psychological reasons; and by recognizing this fact in drawing up the course both the woolliness inherent in the first alternative and the academic isolation which is the danger of the second can be avoided.

Practical experience does show that the order or presentation of the subject matter, as well as the mode of developing each particular branch, must be governed by the age of the pupil. In five years a boy's mind changes greatly, and it is therefore a mistake to proceed on the lines of a course for adults. As for results, it is useless to expect that detail will be long remembered; but the forgetting of detail does not mean

failure. In many cases there does remain the ability to read about and think about scientific matters with some intelligence, and to regard all life more as a whole. An instrument of thought has come into the possession of the boy. Because the use of it is more or less unconscious, the debt to the general science course will not be recognized; but it is none the less real. Other considerations—staff, timetable and the like—are bound to modify the ideal curriculum; but if the basal idea is kept in mind, modification will not destroy usefulness.

One obvious corollary is of the first importance. The boy has a strong tendency to keep what he learns in watertight compartments. It is the business of the general science course to break down these compartments.

Now no subject is more perfectly designed to do this than biology. This fact alone is sufficient indication that biology should be the last stage. The living organism is the meeting-place of chemistry and physics and psychology; history is the story of the highest vertebrate; economics and sociology are largely governed by biological laws. But in addition to this it is certainly true that modern biology demands a very considerable foundation of physics and chemistry, and no biology worthy of the name can be taught without such a foundation on which to build.

We may now turn to the outline of our course. Physical Geography follows the usual lines. Hydrostatics and Heat give insight into simple physical principles, experiments and calculations, and the practical importance of accurate measurements for engineering purposes can be brought out. Heat engines, skating-rinks, clocks, pneumatic tyres, radiators, jacks and many other things acquire a fresh interest. The first term of chemistry gives qualitative ideas, the second quantitative, while the third leads to the molecule. A study of sound gives interest in musical instruments and gramophones, in the human voice, in sound-ranging, and introduces the ideas of waves and resonance. Light gives further understanding of waves; and colour and optical instruments acquire a new meaning. Electricity has obvious fascination, and the technique of simple experiments is particularly useful. Röntgen rays, radio-activity, spectra,



wireless, the relation of molecular movement to heat and physical state, diffusion, osmotic pressure, films and bubbles, open up many vistas during the last term of the Physics year. Steady and carefully arranged laboratory work is essential up to this point. The Astronomy and Geology will follow the usual lines, and need no special description; but the last year is of importance, both in breaking down compartments and in bringing out the scope of the scientific method, and demands fuller treatment.

The first term of this begins with a slight study of the conditions of 'knowing', followed by some investigation of both deductive and inductive reasoning. Next, we spend some time in a slight but critical survey of Greek philosophy from the Ionics to Aristotle, partly to show how the domains of Philosophy, Religion and Science were gradually delimited, partly to indicate the development of pure thought. In particular we consider the difficulty of materialism from the philosophical standpoint. This is followed by a rapid survey of the development of science from the practical needs of the Egyptians, through the discoveries and speculations of Alexandria, the triumphs of Arab culture, and the mediæval darkness lightened by the genius of Roger Bacon, right down to the present day. We make contact with history in the shift of rain-belts and the migrations which resulted, in the destruction of Alexandria, in the schism between East and West, in the Moorish dominion, and in the fall of Constantinople. Biography comes in with Roger Bacon, Newton, Pasteur, Faraday and others. The second term is devoted to the study of the living organism as a physico-chemical mechanism. The *protozoon* and *protophyton* give material for an examination of vital energy and its sources, of tropisms and conjugation. *Hydra* and *obelia* give sexual reproduction, division of labour, nuclear division, regeneration and other things. The frog gives vertebrate structure and embryology. Tissue structure and human physiology (digestion, excretion and respiration) come next, and the ductless glands give a link with psychology. Four lectures suffice to suggest certain outlines of psychology, of course very limited in scope. Two are concerned with the older problems, and especially

with tropisms and reflexes; two with the root-conceptions of modern psychology.

This has its special purpose. We note that both our physiology and our psychology land us in mechanistic explanations, and we discuss why such explanations become self-destructive when pressed.

The third term is occupied with a fairly thorough study of evolution and heredity, preparatory to a general discussion of the biological aspects of sociology, politics, and international problems. This portion of the course has recently been published under the title *Biology and Mankind*.\* I regard it as both important in itself and useful as a means of showing a fresh aspect of the interplay between science and daily life. The course concludes with a brief examination of the reasons why physiology, psychology and heredity each lead to a determinist view of life. Does the explanation of this lie in the nature of reality or in the postulates of the scientific method? What light does our study of Greek philosophy throw upon the matter? What kind of philosophy of biology seems to be indicated?

It will be seen that such a course as I have outlined, whatever its imperfections, has at least the merit of attempting both to lay a foundation of a fairly solid kind, and to show that the building which is reared upon that foundation is no unfamiliar one, but the everyday dwelling-place of humanity. More than this a general science course cannot hope to do; less than this it should not do.

I maintain then that if a general science course is to succeed, it must combine a direct training in observation and method, with guidance over a widening field by means of demonstration lectures; biology must be an integral part of the course, since human beings are alive, and their interests are the interests of living organisms; and that biology should come last, since the living organism is based upon matter, and an understanding of the laws which govern the transformation of matter is essential for any intelligent understanding of that organism. Besides which, only the older boys have reached the stage when correlation of the branches of science and the activities of the social organism can be appreciated.

\* Cambridge University Press.



# Science in Secondary Schools for Girls

I. M. DRUMMOND

WE live in an age when no child can grow up altogether unconscious that scientific inventions are transforming the conditions of human life. Electric light and heat, the telephone and wireless are rapidly invading even the most remote villages, and will soon be accepted amenities of life there as in the towns. Nor is it only in such practical ways that science affects our modern life. Theories of wave transmission, of electrons and of radiation, are vaguely familiar to many people with no great training in Science, and are, indeed, part of the intellectual atmosphere of our age. All this must profoundly influence our outlook with regard to the teaching of Science in schools, for one important function of the school is to enable growing boys and girls to enter into a fruitful relationship with the intellectual environment and practical needs of the world in which they find themselves.

It is to a large extent such considerations as these that have led to the movement to widen the scope of the school science curriculum, to render the lessons less formal and academic than was commonly the case twenty years ago, and to bring them into closer touch with the varied experience of modern everyday life. There is much to be said for this movement, but there is at the same time a danger of superficiality. Our further business as teachers of Science is to enable our pupils to gain some insight into the growth of scientific knowledge, to learn reliance upon first-hand observation, and to realize up to a point from their own work the value of observation, hypothesis and experimental test. The Science lessons may at times be used to give useful general information, but this can never be the backbone of the work. While it is true that in the older more formal type of teaching, when the Science course was so often concerned in its early stages largely with physical measurement, the subject developed too slowly to sustain vigorous attention, we are perhaps in danger now of losing sight of the necessity for really slow work every now and again. There should be definitely planned places in every good course where

there is time for the individuals to frame their own hypotheses, to devise their own experiments, to make mistakes and to check their mistakes themselves by further observation and experiment. Only when they have done this do they begin to realize what Science really is.

We have, then, to compromise between two opposing aims in our Science teaching, one leading us to give breadth of interest, to move forward quickly, and to touch on as many and as varied topics as possible, the other leading us to dig deeply, to go slowly, to emphasize training in a method of thought rather than the acquisition of wide and varied knowledge. According as we emphasize one aim or the other will our choice of subject matter vary. It is, however, in any case advisable to choose for the first experimental course with a young class problems which can be dealt with without elaborate apparatus. The subject also should be capable of sub-division, so that an experiment can be completed in a lesson and each lesson form an entity in itself, while, nevertheless, there is sufficient cohesion between one lesson and the next for a more or less organized body of knowledge to be built up in the child's mind. For this stage (age about 11 to 13) various branches of physical science offer suitable material; simple experiments on heat, light, hydrostatics, mechanical contrivances, such as pulleys and levers, solubility and crystallization, even very simple magnetism and electricity, all fulfil the requirements. Experimental biology is not so suitable at this stage, partly because the experiments are rarely complete in one lesson, and thus need a somewhat developed power of carrying over interest across an interval of distracted attention, and partly because so many of the biological experiments need a previous knowledge of physical and chemical processes. So long as the course proceeds slowly enough to give time for careful observation and its recording, and also some opportunity for trial and error, there is no reason why a considerable variety of subjects should not be dealt with during these two years, their selection depending on the special interests of the class, and of



the teacher. The importance of this last should never be lost sight of, for only enthusiasm can kindle enthusiasm. The main point at the moment is that cohesion throughout a year's work is of secondary importance at this stage; all that matters is that a group of lessons should deal with one subject sufficiently to give a feeling of a growing body of knowledge, and that the relationship between the Science lesson and everyday experience should be kept steadily in view.

During the years thirteen to sixteen the systematic development of the work becomes of greater importance. The mind has gained the power of following out a continuous thread of argument, of collecting data over a continuous period, and of comparing the results. Having followed out an investigation herself, for example, in burning and rusting, and having had to modify her theories as fresh facts presented themselves, a fourteen-year-old is not only ready for a more critical appreciation of the work of the original investigators, but has gained some real insight into the way in which knowledge must grow at the present day. From this point it is, in my opinion, advisable that one, or at most two, sciences be studied intensively. The work, for the best pupils at any rate, must go beyond an attempt to accumulate useful knowledge, or to gain a working understanding of everyday applications. It must illustrate the gradual building up of fundamental theories, such as that of evolution, or of the constitution of matter. It must even here and there take the class to the limits of the known and allow them, as it were, to look over the edge.

Many considerations may modify one's choice of the subject to be concentrated upon during these years. For those who have real scientific aptitude, and who will carry their scientific studies further, a sound foundation of physics or chemistry (if not of both) is essential. Those whose main interest lies rather in the humanities will probably gain more from biology. If the school is large enough for a choice to be given, this is best of all.

There is considerable diversity of practice in girls' schools with regard to the time allotted to Science, and the degree of emphasis which is placed on one side of the curriculum or another during the last two years before the school

certificate examination. The plan, commoner in boys' schools than in girls', and unfortunately encouraged by the exacting standards of University scholarship examination, of allowing a preponderance of time to be spent on mathematics and two sciences, to the detriment of the humanities, has proved to be harmful to later University work in Science itself. A working knowledge of French and German, an interest in English literature, and ability to write clear, concise, pleasant English, are invaluable to the science student, and schools which insist on two foreign languages and only one science up to the age of sixteen do not find their pupils handicapped, but rather the reverse, in scientific careers later.

If only one science is studied from fourteen to sixteen, the question of width of interest remains to be dealt with. Good popular lectures are useful, supplemented in their turn by an adequate library where the girls may borrow books of a somewhat popular character on branches of science in which interest may have been thus aroused. The school science club is a further means of widening interest, and there are certain periods in the year when the regular course may be put on one side for three or four weeks, and some intensive work done on a subject not otherwise included in the regular curriculum, such as astronomy. Biology would serve the same purpose for girls concentrating on chemistry or physics. July, after the regular yearly examinations are over, may be profitably used in this way.

During recent years increased stress has been laid upon the need of giving some biological knowledge to all pupils. In some girls' schools a course in biology runs concurrently with physics and chemistry throughout the school. A school which can only afford four, or at the most five, periods a week for Science during the last two pre-certificate years, will, however, probably prefer to concentrate on one science, especially if stress is laid, as it should be, on the practical side of the work. In this case a short intensive course of hygiene, with a good physiological basis, may profitably be introduced at some time between the ages of thirteen and fifteen. At this stage it has usually to be treated simply as useful knowledge which is given by the teacher,



but if taught by the science mistress it can be linked with work in the science lessons proper, so that it falls into its place as part of a larger body of knowledge. Biology in a wider sense is an admirable subject, as has already been said, from fourteen to sixteen for those whose tastes lean towards the humanities rather than towards science. The many ways in which it touches human problems, and yet the width and freshness of its interests, make a great appeal to many boys and girls. Some good experimental work can be done, especially on the plant side of the subject, and there is abundant opportunity for training pupils to rely on first-hand observation. Interest is turned outward and away from self, while at the same time valuable knowledge of the working of the human body, of facts of sex, and of reproduction are accumulated and assume their proper proportions. It is, I believe, inadvisable that animal dissection should be done at this stage. Some will not mind it, others have a real feeling of repugnance towards it, and are without an overwhelming scientific interest to carry them over the repugnance. Real harm may be done by insistence in such cases, and they are not rare. A properly prepared and mounted dissection will not evoke the same feelings, and for the purposes of this stage is quite sufficient. This also gets over the difficulty of sacrificing life in considerable quantity for the purposes of a class; callousness in that matter is not what one wants to inculcate by biological teaching. There is still some danger of biology being taught as if it were two subjects, zoology and botany. This is a pity. Life is fundamentally one, and the subject gains in interest when the varying adaptations and interdependences of the plant and animal world are treated in relation to each other.

Biology has, so far, been dealt with from the point of view of the less scientifically minded. It will do no harm if those who are likely to specialize in science later meet biology at a later stage. When there is a secure foundation of elementary physics and chemistry, and a real scientific interest, the biological work can be attacked in a different way. The danger is that it may be crowded out. Physics, chemistry and mathematics, having held the field so far, will be the subjects naturally chosen for the post-

matriculation course unless biology is made a compulsory subject for a short period. This seems to mean an unduly wide curriculum in the Sixth Form, and yet there is much to be said for giving a broad basis of scientific knowledge at this stage.

In conclusion a word must be said about the relation of science to other subjects in the curriculum. Knowledge should be a whole, and it is always a pleasure to be able to break down the watertight compartments in which we are too apt to confine it. Colour may be dealt with in the art room and in the laboratory, with collaboration between the two teachers concerned, and with great enhancement of the interest of the subject. Air pressure, precipitation, expansion and contraction with temperature, weather charts, plant products and chemical industries are common ground between science and geography. The history of scientific discovery is one section of the history of the development of human thought and society. By indicating these links and by fostering an overlapping of subjects, wherever this is possible, without interfering with the proper development of the course, an appreciation of the many-sidedness of scientific knowledge may be greatly helped; so, too, may the appreciation of the place which science fills not only in the practical life, but in the whole thought atmosphere of the day.

## February Issue

*Professor F. Clarke*

THE RECONSTRUCTION OF  
DISCIPLINE

*Benjamin C. Gruenberg*

EDUCATIONAL EXPLOITATION  
OF ERRORS

THE DECROLY METHOD OF  
TEACHING READING AND  
WRITING

AN EDUCATIONAL  
EXPERIMENT IN GERMANY



# Nature Study as an Approach to Biology

C. VON WYSS

NO one now disputes that science has a place in education. Its utility and its direct bearing upon many of the activities of modern life justify its inclusion in the school curriculum. But, turning from the practical gifts which science holds out to its votaries, we realize its equally great cultural value. Like language and literature on the one hand, and the arts and crafts on the other, science represents one of the main trends of human achievement in civilization; and teaching which brings the children into close relation with these doubtlessly provides humanizing and cultural influences.

Science, as a historic human process, has its clearly marked periods, and in its early stage is characterized by investigations which are chiefly undertaken for purposes of practical utility. This phase, in its turn, emerges from the general reactions of the primitive mind to the stimulus of its natural environment. Science is most successfully taught if the children are led through similar stages of personal experience, always in close relation to their mental growth and point of view. Thus the dynamic force of the children's natural interest in their environment at every stage becomes available to the teachers in the conduct of affairs.

The attitude of young children below secondary school age is characterized by a general interest and great curiosity in the outside world, chiefly in fellow beings—in animals rather than in plants. The interest is centred less upon the appearance than upon the activities of other creatures, especially such activities as have an obvious parallel in the children's own life. A child is susceptible to the charm of beautiful things, to the curious ways of creatures and to the magic of change and development which nature works before his eyes.

Science at this stage is usually described as 'nature-study' and it represents the reaction of a young mind to the direct and immediate influence of an unexplored, but *a priori* interesting, environment. The main object of instruction at this stage must be to keep alive the children's innate curiosity regarding their

natural environment in general and the ways of living creatures in particular, and to foster by every means available their love of nature.

Most teachers are now agreed as to the proper and ideal course to adopt in directing the children's nature-study, and it is well to hold a rich and clear concept in mind and to stress it on all occasions, even though concessions have to be made at times to unfavourable circumstances.

What are our ideas as regards nature-study teaching?

1. There should be an atmosphere of open air and country reality about the work throughout the course. Life in the open, with its strong and varied stimuli, provides first-hand experience and intellectual adventure. Organized field rambles, whether carried out by the whole class or by individual children, must form an integral part of the nature-study course, even if they occur only occasionally. They serve as a source of inspiration and they ensure proper content and perspective. Similarly school gardens, even if confined to window- or roof-gardens, are indispensable as regions for experimentation and continued observation. The relation of the classroom or laboratory to the fields and garden should be as a place providing opportunity for concentrated, detailed and more systematic examination and investigation is to the region where surprises spring upon the mind and where puzzles and problems originate. Use should also be made of zoological gardens and museums, not only in town schools where field work is difficult, but for the practical demonstration of systematized knowledge which they provide and which is of value to older people.

2. There are strong arguments in favour of a seasonal course of study. All appearances and events out-of-doors which attract the children's attention and hold their interest are determined by the seasons. Seasonal change has at all times profoundly affected the mind of man and influenced his activities, and it will therefore be found that such fundamental nature impressions will readily activate the thought-life of the



children. Moreover, their own mental and physical conditions vary with the seasons and they are naturally more sympathetically inclined towards things that sound the same elemental note. Thus the work in the nature lessons should consist in the study of living things from the point of view of the interested spectator of the pageant of the seasons. Great events may be selected for detailed study; such are the formation of fruit, scattering of seed, fall of leaves, migration of birds, moulds and toadstools, bulbs and winter buds, winter sleep, sowing and growing of seeds, spring flowers, return of the birds and their nesting habits, young animals, pond-life, flowers and insects.

At all times the weather is interesting, and very satisfactory seasonal nature records may be made by little children, representing the kind of weather graphically by means of colours, the significance of each colour having been definitely fixed by common consent on the part of the class. In a parallel column objects of nature, studied at the particular time, may be represented by drawing and painting. With increasing skill these nature calendars may become elaborate and beautiful, recording facts and relationships in a visual demonstration.

3. While the nature-study course should provide, without doubt, increased experience and should widen the children's circle of acquaintances, there has been a tendency in schools to make this process of introduction too formal. Ever new specimens are brought to the notice of the children and the presentation of the new acquaintance is celebrated by detailed and systematic description. Such work is intended to cultivate the habit of exact observation and accurate description, but it does not meet with permanent success and is attended by loss of interest and individual reaction. No one will question that observation and description are of the very nature of science, but if the practice is divorced from the child's spontaneity and love of investigating in his own way, it tends to become a mechanical, technical exercise, contributing nothing to the progress of science on the part of the pupil himself.

The tendency of the newer teaching in nature-study is to stress a dynamic rather than a static conception of nature. Instead of providing

specimens of animals or plants for examination and description, processes of change, growth, development and activity are brought to the notice of children. Apart from the important fact that the essential nature of vital phenomena is thus demonstrated, the procedure has educational value. Attention and curiosity are normally and naturally stimulated in the child, and spontaneous response is assured. The relation between the phenomenon and the young observer, changing continually as it does, requires constant readjustment on his part, resulting in vivid mental function, growth of intelligence and enriched concepts—all indisputable gains and necessary antecedents to an appreciation of accurate observation and clear description.

4. Yet another protest against formal teaching and rigid method. The scientific impulse of our young naturalists often finds expression in practical activity, which would not be tolerated in a course of 'pure science' lessons. The acquisition of intellectual controls is for him an incentive to invention and construction. The making of borders, fences and trellis for the garden and ingenious arrangements for water supply and drainage is associated with the study of plant life. The construction of aquaria, siphons, aerating apparatus and dipping nets is an integral part of the study of pond-life. Cages and reading cases are built for animals under observation, with due regard to their needs. Museum cases are designed and made for holiday collections which again show adjustment of design to purpose. This interest in the utilitarian and practical side of science is characteristic of most healthy minded children with their rich store of motor energy. All such work makes havoc of a well-planned syllabus for a course of lessons. The teacher should never lose sight of the essential value of thorough and careful work, clear thinking and cautious generalization, but while maintaining an atmosphere of enthusiasm and providing 'free play for variation' and individual reaction, emotional and intellectual, he should so exploit the pupil's spontaneity that definite progress in science is ensured.

Nature-study involving investigation, experiment and constructional activity necessitates a practical room. This need not be a laboratory



of the usual type. It must provide space in which to move about freely. It should be furnished with tables which can be easily moved. Good lighting is essential and it would be a great advantage if the windows were built out, so as to form conservatories for plants and to provide suitable accommodation for various forms of animal life. The room should have cupboards and shelves for simple apparatus and reagents, several sinks and adequate water and gas supply. There should be a store of tools and materials for the construction of useful articles and apparatus.

Teachers in urban schools must see immense difficulties in the way of expressing in practice their ideal conception of nature study teaching and learning. If the study of nature is the very breath of their own life and if they see in it fundamental values in the education of their pupils, they will perform miracles of achievement in approximating to their ideals. The teacher would be enormously helped in his task by a proper organization and integration of the curriculum of the school, by co-ordination with other studies and co-operation with other members of staff.

In discussing nature-study we have, as a matter of fact, concerned ourselves with the foundation of a scheme of general science for all, as part of a liberal education. While fully realizing that certain aspects of external reality will gradually hold the interest and attention to the exclusion of others, and that the work will consequently become more specialized, it is nevertheless plain, that the various 'subjects' in science should not remain in watertight compartments, but should make their contribution to the study of topics of general scientific and human interest. The direction of specialization in the study of animal and plant life, as part of the general scheme of science, is now receiving much and critical attention. It is at last being realized that to neglect biology is to remain ignorant of half the threads in the warp and woof of the tapestry of creation and of the scientific achievements which have contributed so much to 'the relief of man's estate' as regards his personal, economic and social welfare. Since biology has now reached the stage of being a unified and organized science, it is contributing enormously to the

general control of life. This fact, together with that of its obvious cultural value, should ensure for it an important place in the school curriculum, and it should make its contribution to the general education of all.

In recent years a fresh interest has been taken in hygiene, since the complexities of life in the present day, especially in cities, make it imperative that there should be widely diffused knowledge of the principles of healthy living, both for the community and for the individual. It is realized that biological science provides opportunity for the practical study of the various aspects of life, and therefore forms a rational foundation for hygiene. This is obviously sound, but there is a grave danger that biology be taught as ancillary to hygiene and sex instruction, laying undue stress upon those facts which have some relation to human well-being. This results in a distorted view of life and a narrow conception of hygiene.

While thus refuting the heresy of estimating the educational value of biology in its relation to personal and social hygiene, we admit its practical value in the life of the pupils. It is not inconsistent with disinterestedness and freedom on the part of the pupils that the knowledge acquired makes for foresight and control.

As some teachers may desire to consider the foregoing remarks with reference to a definite scheme of work, and by examining it critically form their own conclusions, such a scheme is herewith submitted. Space only permits of an outline, but this fact will make it all the easier for other teachers to fill in details and so construct a pattern according to their own taste.

#### SUGGESTIONS FOR A COURSE OF BIOLOGICAL SCIENCE

1. The children make the acquaintance of many living things, as the pageant of the seasons brings these to their notice. They enter into a happy and sympathetic relationship with plants and animals as a natural reaction to interesting and beautiful things, events and processes, and arrive at an understanding of their ways.

2. Attention is focussed on the phenomenon of 'aliveness' and work becomes more analytic in method. Continued observations of plants from seed to seed, of animals from egg to



egg, or from birth to birth, supplies biological experience of the process of growth and change. Behaviour of the organism as a whole is resolved into the principal vital functions, viz. feeding, respiration, excretion, movement, reproduction, vital rhythms. Kinship of animals and plants with man, with respect to all which is fundamental in the process of living, becomes plain to the pupils.

3. The children now realize that the primary functions and indeed the whole process of living implies inter-relationship. Search is next

influence on behaviour (function) and consequently on appearance (structure). The question naturally arises as to the method by which cultivated plants and domesticated animals have become modified. Again there is need here for reading or for information from the teacher. The conclusion will be arrived at that a living organism is a historic being and has a past. The pupils' next search will be for characters which remain the same from generation to generation, and for evidences that each creature is something entirely new. They are



*Kindergarten Children create their own Nursery.*

*Long Beach, California*

directed towards interesting and striking instances of interdependence of living things in their environment, and they enrich their personal experience by reading about such relationships as reveal the marvellous complexity of the web of life, and the significance of effort and endeavour.

4. The study of inter-relationship among living organisms reveals the general influence of environment, inanimate as well as animate. Instances are now examined and experiments are made to investigate the direct result of such

now in a position to appreciate earlier chapters in the history of organisms which are set out precisely in museums and may be re-read in the living world around.

5. The inquiry into the history of organisms reveals increase in complexity and especially progress in mental life and in practical control of environment. The children will now appreciate the romance of man's conquests in the world and will read and hear the stories of the life and work of scientists who have made this world a safer and a better place in which to live.



# Integrated Science for Young Children

S. R. SLAVSON

IT is doubtful whether there exists to-day among modern parents and teachers real opposition to the inclusion of science in the education of young children. Instrumental science popularized by practical inventions and its utilitarian value in contemporary commercial-industrial civilization has created a scientific temper of thought and an attitude favouring all pursuit tending to entrench science further in our perennial struggle with the cruelty of nature and the ignorance of man. Whether or not science will prove the real saviour or only a false Messiah remains to be seen; but at present it is admitted that the technological advantages of science in our conquest of nature have not been surpassed. Similarly, the objectivity and logic of science as a habit of thought and a mechanics for pursuing reality are so far the most potent yet evolved.

Partly because of this general inclination and partly owing to the pressure exerted by the dynamism of the increasingly liberated predilections of the modern child, as sympathetic hearing at least is being given to the proposals for establishing scientific pursuits as a permanent factor in the child's educational experience. The aspects of this question, however, which give the educationist the greatest concern is the age to which such work is most suitable, and the manner in which science is to be presented to very young pupils.

With reference to the first problem the current view is that the secondary school age is the most appropriate, and it is therefore not unusual to find science courses in a great many of the better secondary schools. The attitude of educators however is not as sympathetic towards elementary science for children of ages very much younger than these. The resistance to such innovation is one most characteristic of popular attitudes toward all proposals for change in habit or *mores*, and constitutes an inevitable impediment to protagonists in all fields of human endeavour. Such opposition, while it delays progress, does not check it, and is worn down by successful achievement. The more serious difficulty is encountered in the specific opposition to the work on the part of specialists who are more or less in control of the situation.

To introduce science into the experience of young children would constitute a breach of our scientific habit. Science is supposedly an organized body of knowledge properly tested and acceptedly proved. To disturb this organization is an assault upon science itself. The rigid forms of science as to content and method are considered of chief importance, although through this attitude children's native curiosity about the world and their impulsion to learn it scientifically is inhibited. The science teacher and the scientist consider it almost a sacrilege to present to their pupils facts out of their context and proper classification. They therefore discourage and taboo stray questions and spontaneous investigations growing out of experience or from the inner needs created by growth and phantasy. But every thoughtful teacher recognizes that the lively and constructive interest of childhood is the greatest guarantee to his success, and that it is the most fruitful approach at his disposal. Interest is the dynamic focus of organic impulsion. Pedagogy is growing ever more cognizant of the dynamism and the effectualness of interest as a learning condition.

This leads us to the second difficulty of science education for very young children—methodology. Our habits determine our technique. Historically the sciences have evolved in specific specialties. The mathematicians, astronomers, chemists, physicists, anatomists, and the numerous and sundry others have evolved their respective sciences alone, and more or less independent of others. This established the sciences as complete entities lacking inter-relations and organic unity. Teachers have accepted traditional grouping of natural phenomena as a part of their professional *mores* and viewed disapprovingly, as a transgression of scientific propriety, all attempts to unify these into one whole. The synthesis of the sciences, however, is an inevitable next step in their development. The separation of science into the 'sciences' is a plan of convenience based upon major interests and the nature of phenomena. But the effectualness of science as a social agency is



conditioned upon its unity. The integration of the sciences is particularly important to pedagogy. The child sees life as one whole, rather than as convenient and conventionalized departments. His experience, therefore, should follow similar lines. The presentation of facts, or rather the discovery of facts by the child, has no logical delineation in the mind of the pupil as we define it. Life does not present itself to him in a form of syllogisms. To the child it has a logic and sequence of its own of which we know very little, and which would appear as a hopeless confusion to most of us if we did know.

Perhaps a condensed outline of the development of a science interest by a group of boys and girls, aged eleven to twelve, may illustrate our point. One or two of these children found some glass prisms and a set of lenses in a box conveniently placed among other simple scientific materials on open shelves. They began to play with them as they have been in the habit of doing with all new materials since early childhood. Our experience convinces us that the first spurt of play is nearly always succeeded by investigation and inquiry. Being intrigued by the colours and distortions of vision they proceeded into investigatory manipulation, such as combining lenses, varying distances and objects. The results were sufficiently fascinating to draw all the other children of the group, fourteen in number, into the circle of play-inquirers. The serious aspect of this activity arose when some of the children observed the different effects of the apparatus. This was the *dramatic factor*, which is the child's chief stimulant to activity and learning. Much has been discovered, and still more information was supplied, from physics texts placed at the pupil's disposal as questions inevitably arose. The teacher's function was not one of an oracle, but rather as a guide to the sources of information.

As one would expect, the question arose: 'How do we see? What makes our eyes see?' Appropriate texts, conferences between the pupils and teachers, discussions and children's own compositions and drawings of eyes, etc., were brought into play. 'But', the children demanded, 'we want to see an eye. We want to cut one open and see what is inside.' Each child was given a cow's eye, obtained from our butcher to do with what he

liked\*. Having studied the gross structure of the eye theoretically, they knew what to expect. Most of them were especially intrigued by the lens and retina, and extracted them with great care. Imagine their surprise to find in the cow's eye a lens of precisely the same appearance and texture as the glass lenses they had played with. A lens was left to 'dry', exposed to the air for several days, and its crystalline structure was revealed. One or two of the children wore eye-glasses, and the question of the function of glasses was propounded. A study of the un-normal construction of the eyes, such as astigmatism, myopia, hyperopia, were made. Out of their experience and discovery the children were able to suggest the type of lens, qualitatively, as a corrective to various eye conditions.

'But how do the nerves work so as to make us see?' one of the brighter children, a girl, asked. We inevitably drifted into the study of the nervous system. Physiology texts were pulled off shelves. An eager and fascinated group of youngsters were entering the portals of life's deepest mysteries. Numerous sketches and compositions were written on the information obtained from charts and books. The children were now quite naturally interested in our specimen of a preserved brain, which was, until then, kept out of their sight. A study of the synapse and the building up of tracts in the nervous system caused one to exclaim, 'Now I know how we have habits!' This started the group on a discussion of personal habits and led us into psychology. One of the children, who must have heard the subject discussed at home, wanted to know what psycho-analysis was. We did not encourage the discussion of the latter subject. The entire subject of psychology was treated perfunctorily by the teacher, for we felt that our work had better be maintained on an objective plane. But we were not able to prevent the formulation by the children of some highly ethical concepts of social and anti-social habits.

That sub-division of knowledge described as chemistry has come under the group's scrutiny, as a result of their discovery of the spectrum

\* Dissection has not been encouraged by the present writer. It was included in the work of adolescent children only, and only infrequently with younger children upon demand from them.





*An Improvised Laboratory*

*[Avery Coonley School, U.S.A.]*



*A complete course in Aeronautics, except actual flying instruction, is offered at George Washington High School, Los Angeles*



and the sensation of colours. They made dyes; coloured cloth with chlorine; and the teacher demonstrated some spectacular colour changes in chemical reactions, too advanced for children of this age to do for themselves, or which they could not have discovered on their own.

A notable development by one of the girls of the group ought perhaps to be recorded here. Having discovered through her play with lenses and the focussing of the sun's rays that heat is a concomitant of light, and that colour is fundamentally a condition of reflection and absorption of rays of light, she came to the conclusion that different colours would contain different heat conditions. She at once set out to test her theory, and evolved entirely on her own the following technique: Upon a strip of paper she drew sections of different colours in crayon; red, blue, yellow, green, purple, etc. Equipped with a double convex lens and a watch she went up to the roof of the school building and focussed the sun rays upon each strip of the colour successively, noting the time it took to set the paper on fire. She discovered that this time varied for the different colours.

To those who have been trained in epistemology the significance of the last self-originated and self-initiated experiment will be of particular interest. The genesis of the idea, the summation of past knowledge and the awareness of causative relations involved are of high degree. That a girl of eleven can achieve it may be incredible to those who have not had the opportunity to observe the resourcefulness of children's alive and vibrant interests.

The work described has been carried on with a minimum of adult participation, very often in the teacher's absence and just as often at home with the aid of books and apparatus borrowed from the library, for overnight use.\* This interest absorbed about twenty weeks of the group's time-allotment with the science teacher of two one-hour-periods a week, in addition to the time they gave to it outside of the

'science room'. All work was voluntary and individual, devoid of curricular compulsion.

Perhaps the following development of an interest by children five to six years old will illustrate the contention of progressive educators that the adult's conception of the nature of child-interests and particularly his comprehension of the child's capacities require readjustment. I am taking from the report of the group teacher the following:—

'One day some of the boys were out on the roof playing. They came in obviously wanting to ask me something but seemed embarrassed. Finally they told me that they wanted to play with fire and to make gas. . . . I spoke to Mr. Slavson about this development and he gave me some bottles containing sodium hydrate and phenal pthaline and suggested that I procure Seidlitz powders. I gave these to the children with suggestions as to how they might use them. They were all very much interested and worked consecutively on this material for two days. They then began to make solutions with different materials. They brought in bones of dead animals from the park, chipped off pieces and allowed them to stand in water for days to see what would happen. They put small pieces of wax in water. They decided to have a "museum" to show the whole school how they could make gas by mixing Seidlitz powders with water. . . . They allowed small pieces of coloured cloth to stand in water, watching it become dyed. They brought into the class room quantities of mud, made solutions of it and allowed different materials to stand in it.

'They got plaster of Paris and used it to make plaques or tiles which they wanted. For about three weeks the room was full of jars and bottles and cups filled with a variety of materials which the children were watching. Some of these became covered with mould, much to the children's joy, for they saw that their materials were changing, as they had hoped they might. . . .

'An interest in dolls and dolls' houses broke into this "laboratory experience", but it was carried over to their succeeding interest where it was used in mixing quantities of medicine to be fed to the sick dolls. I believe that since this experience there has not been a day when some concoction had not been made by some child or another in the group and allowed to stand to see what would happen.'

An analysis of the origin and development of this activity\* reveals several factors of con-

\* For a further description of the present writer's technique in science education see 'Our Enemy the Child', by Agnes De Lima, p. 205, et seq., *New Republic*, New York, 1926; 'Creative Science Teaching', by S. R. Slavson, *School and Home*, January, 1924, New York. For a theoretic discussion see his 'Science as Experience and Attitude', *Progressive Education*, October, 1931, Washington, D.C.

\* It must be noted that both the equipment of the room and that of the teacher in matters of scientific materials precluded the development of this activity into an experience of great importance to these children. A technique for unhampered investigation of environment with ample material and adequate adult guidance provided at the Malting House School, Cambridge, England, was superior to the one described above for this specific purpose.



derable importance to modern education. (a) The spontaneous interests of children are the most fruitful as a starting point to children's learning. (b) Interests are sustained for longer periods if they result from the child's organic or maturational propulsion. (c) Activistic learning is a native disposition of child nature. Children's activities are in the nature of an inverted spiral, they begin at some one point and widen out in scope as well as being directed upward in the matter of acquisition of knowledge and information. (d) The direction of child-interests is toward environment in very young children. This interest is later redirected in a centripetal direction, toward themselves, as the preceding illustration relative to the group of older children indicates.

The data which the present writer has accumulated in his work with several hundred children for a period of ten years leads him to conclude (a) that genetic learning transcends our artificial sub-divisions of the sciences; (b) that the sciences are naturally articulated in the mind of the child, and (c) that natural processes are seen by him as a whole in their causal and relational setting to a degree limited only by his innate capacity and maturational level.

It is obvious that the formality and the exclusiveness of organized science courses are incapable of arousing the vitality of young children's curiosity, excepting in some specific cases of scientifically gifted children. But if science and its resultant, the scientific mind, are to ascend in our daily life and thought, it is essential that the basis for understanding of life for which science holds the key, should be made available to children as early as possible in its qualitative, rather than the quantitative, aspects.

How a child of 12.7 years, a member of the group, whose activities were described, relates science and art a year later, is demonstrated by the following poem which she has written quite spontaneously. The clarity of her comprehension of the evolutionary process is as striking as the form in which she chose to express it.

#### EVOLUTION.

Nothing blue nothing green,  
Everything a swirling whirling mass,

Crashing falling thundering,  
Flames piercing through rock and gorge  
A falling whizzing sound, a settling thud  
All is quiet except for a hissing swishing  
A heat that penetrates the most staunch barricades,  
Then night—what is night  
Darkness, blackness, silence.  
A glow, a warm, warm glow,  
A sphere of red and yellow light,  
Stars, moons, planets,  
Circling, swerving, twirling  
Clouds passing,  
Shape of animals, seas, spirals, vast mountains.  
Now Water—wetness,  
Cells, single cells lonely slowly rocking—floating,  
They multiply, divide,  
Swim side by side,  
Crawling, sprawling, falling  
Now plants, trees, vines, that twine and climb  
And after centuries and centuries of development  
Dinosaurs  
Beasts whose hinds and fores could reach for miles  
and miles  
They swam and played and talked through generations,  
After eons of changing, these huge vertebrates were  
gone  
Never more to return—extinct,  
Out of this came Man.

Our experience of ten years with this method of science teaching with children from four to sixteen years of age convinces us of the superiority of the unified science programme over the specialties as an educative procedure. If the aim of science teaching is to convey information which is only partially accepted, but reflected by the student, the latter system is perhaps more suitable. If, however, our aim is to develop scientific attitudes, to arouse interest, to vitalize knowledge and to convey to our pupils the feeling of the functional possibilities of knowledge, the unified programme is far more effective. The question as to the most appropriate age for the introduction of the child to science can best be answered thus: *the child's scientific learning begins soon after birth, and continues until such time when adults discourage and taboo it.* And since all experience has its scientific component what is required of parents and teachers is to encourage frank experience with environment, and to grade materials and facts of that environment to suit the age and the capacity of the individual child.



# Broadcast Science for Schools

SCIENCE finds a place in three different parts of the programme broadcast by the British Broadcasting Corporation—(i) in the afternoon broadcasts to schools; (ii) in the adult education series of talks given in the evening; (iii) in the general talks. This article is concerned mainly with the first of these divisions

The Central Council for School Broadcasting, a body of educationists representing central and local authorities and the teachers, now takes the educational responsibility for school broadcasts; it exercises its powers through an Executive Committee and through Subject Committees for each subject in the curriculum. There is therefore a Science and Natural History Committee. This is under the chairmanship of Miss W. L. Mercier, Principal of Whitelands College, Putney, and is composed both of specialists in the subject, e.g. Dr. W. K. Spencer, F.R.S., and of teachers in the schools taking the broadcast science courses. It will thus be evident that an informed body of opinion is gradually being built up from the experience of teachers and from reports and answers to questionnaires sent up regularly by listening schools, as well as from visits to schools during reception of broadcast science lessons by the B.B.C. educational staff.

The Committee has decided that in the teaching of science there is a place for broadcasts of three different kinds: (i) agricultural and horticultural for rural elementary schools; (ii) regular seasonal talks on natural history designed to promote observation out of doors for junior pupils in elementary schools either in town or country; (iii) lessons on biology and hygiene for senior elementary pupils of both sexes in rural and urban schools.

Somewhat apart from this stands the broadcasting of relatively advanced talks to secondary school pupils of sixth form standing on such subjects as the interrelation of the sciences and the possibilities of a specialist career in one or other of them.

The courses in progress at present (1931-32) are planned for a whole year and entrusted to one broadcast speaker in each case.

(i) (a) *Agriculture*: Sir John Russell, Director

of Rothamsted Experimental Station broadcasts for twenty-five minutes every fortnight on 'How Science Came into Farming' and links up rural science in the most interesting manner with the historical teaching of the country school.

(b) *Horticulture*: Mr. C. E. Hudson, Vice-Principal of the Hertfordshire Agricultural Institute, Oaklands, St. Albans, gives 'The School Garden' course in the alternate weeks. This is keenly followed in schools which have gardens.

Directions for experiments are given at the microphone; these are being carried out at the same time by the lecturers themselves at Rothamsted and Oaklands, and the results obtained by them are described in succeeding talks. Listening schools are then invited to check by them the progress of their own experimental work. An illustrated pamphlet containing suggested experiments and notes for teachers with hints for follow-up work is published by the B.B.C. for these Rural Science courses, and should be in the hands of every pupil during the broadcast lesson.

(ii) *Nature Study*: Mr. Eric Parker, Editor of *The Field*, gives twenty minutes weekly to a course of talks called 'Round the Countryside'.

This is not intended to replace a school course of Nature Study, but the younger pupils under eleven years old are encouraged to observe the weather, birds, and the seasonal changes in hedgerow and field. They are often asked to collect specimens of plants, flowers, butterflies, etc., which are dealt with on the succeeding Tuesday. Apart from this no experimental work is done and no pamphlet published in connection with the course.

(iii) *Biology and Hygiene*: The speaker chosen for this course is Professor Winifred Cullis, C.B.E., of the London (Royal Free Hospital) School of Medicine for Women.

She aims at giving to boys and girls of eleven and upwards some of the fundamental facts in biology and physiology in such a manner that they can be applied by the children themselves to the practice of healthy living. The talks—twenty-five minutes on Wednesdays—pre-



suppose no scientific knowledge and are couched in language as simple as is compatible with scientific accuracy. In the illustrated pamphlet for this course, separate lists of long or difficult but necessary words, e.g. corpuscle, hæmoglobin, are given under each lesson heading, and experiments are suggested which can be done either by the pupils on themselves or on one another, or else with simple and inexpensive apparatus, diagrams of which are reproduced in the pamphlet.

Although the underlying aim of all the courses is to give boys and girls some insight into the spirit and methods of modern science, it has been found that the broadcasting of directions for experimental work presents certain fundamental difficulties. So that while observations and experiments are suggested both in the pamphlets and at the microphone, it is left for the class teacher to supervise and direct this part of the work. In schools where broadcast lessons have been most successful a great deal of attention is paid to preparation for the talk by means of carefully planned experiments, set up, if not actually carried out, beforehand. It is all-important to remember that a broadcast lesson is a co-operation between a teacher in the classroom and a teacher at the microphone.

An interesting demonstration was held in December at Priory Grove School, S.W.8, when Professor Cullis was actually present in a classroom to watch the effect of her own voice on a class of elementary school girls aged 14. This was made possible by means of the new invention, the Blattnerphone, a steel tape on which Professor Cullis had previously recorded her 17-minute talk, and which was then used for the broadcast transmission at the appropriate place in the programme. None of the listening class was aware of Professor Cullis's presence, and several of them on being questioned asserted that they had built up for themselves a vivid mental picture of the individual with whose voice they had become familiar throughout the term. It may readily be imagined with what amazement amounting to consternation they viewed the lady, when they had been so candidly describing her personal appearance a few moments before. This Blattnerphone

device not only enables a broadcast speaker to make personal contact with a small fraction of his or her listeners, but is becoming invaluable as a means of improving broadcasting technique.

It only remains to say that the somewhat different course for secondary schools is given fortnightly by Mr. Gerald Heard on 'The Claims of Science'.

In these talks Mr. Heard is attempting to describe in outline the present branches of science, as an aid to vocational guidance. But they also have a more general educational aim. In the modern world, it is quite as important that the educated public should be able to conceive the general aim of science, as that there should be a sufficient supply of experts to assure that communities, so largely dependent on scientific processes, should not break down. The danger of scientific specialization—that the expert may become completely ignorant outside his narrow subject, and that this ignorance renders him a poor citizen, and may make his work a peril to civilization—can be mitigated by a survey which regards science as a single system, and shows that even in science specialization is a danger.

Mr. Heard has also been responsible for the inauguration of a series of fortnightly evening broadcasts called 'This Surprising World' inspired by contemporary research and invention. His audience, as far as one can judge, is wide and varied, and his talks, which form a loosely threaded commentary, are conceived on humanistic lines.

The result of an experiment broadcast last spring seems to show that there is a small army of amateur investigators willing to help the expert by providing him with the material he needs for his work, and a great deal of valuable information was collected on such subjects as the breeding season of the blackbird, the increase of the grey squirrel, etc. The experiment showed that listeners were prepared to take considerable pains to make their observations accurate and reliable. The aim of these experiments, however, is not limited to the collection of data: it is hoped to demonstrate the nature of the scientific approach and the possibility of applying scientific methods to the study of social affairs.



# *The Position of Science in the High Schools of South Africa*

L. D. JONES

**T**WENTY-SIX years ago the British Association for the Advancement of Science visited South Africa to hold a joint meeting with the South African Association, and two years ago a similar meeting took place. In this interval of twenty-four years, great progress has been made in Science in this country, and the interest aroused in the public mind has been reflected in the work done in the schools of South Africa. To-day the leading High Schools here are as well equipped in most respects, especially with laboratory facilities, as any schools in the world.

Unfortunately, the educational system of the country has for many years been dominated by examinations, though the 'matriculation fetish' is condemned by the great majority of educationists. Great progress has, however, been made since 1910, and the four Provinces—the Transvaal, Cape, Natal and the Orange Free State—have devised various schemes to minimize the disadvantages associated with university-controlled examinations.

The teaching of Science has, to a great extent, been based on the work done in similar schools in Europe and America. Physics and chemistry dominate the field in boys' schools, and botany in girls' schools; although provision has also been made for the teaching of other sciences. During the last few years, however, the question of the introduction of a General Science Course, with special reference to biology, has come to the fore. Some years ago Professor H. B. Fantham, President of the South African Association for the Advancement of Science, made special reference in his very able Presidential address, to the teaching of biology in High Schools, and stressed the great importance of introducing a course of this nature.

Only in the Cape Province was this subject taught in secondary schools and to both sexes. In 1927 the Transvaal Education Department appointed a committee of head masters, inspectors, science teachers and university

professors, to consider the teaching of science in high schools. After much discussion a syllabus of General Science was proposed, in which both the physical and biological sciences with physiography as a centre, were grouped and correlated.

It was pointed out that (1) biology is a necessary part of a liberal education and that everyone should have a knowledge of some aspects of living matter; (2) the economic importance of the subject is obvious; (3) too early specialization must be avoided; (4) the needs of the general student must be considered, for only about five per cent of the high school pupils enter the universities; (5) the objections to such a course on the grounds of expense, lack of trained teachers, suitable text-books etc., could easily be overcome.

The experience gained on this question in America confirms this view, and so soundly is a General Science course based on progressive educational theory that it is now taught to more students than any other two special sciences taken together. It is especially suitable for the earlier years of secondary education, the junior high school period. In the Transvaal, a three years' course of correlated general science was recommended for high schools, at the end of which period about eighty-five per cent of the pupils leave school, having reached Form III (St. VIII) and being fifteen to sixteen years of age. This course was introduced some time ago, and, after some experience in the working of this scheme, the Transvaal High School Teachers' Association appointed a Science Committee to go into the whole question and to make suggestions to the Education Department in connection with the syllabus and its carrying out in practice. The Committee (of which the writer is Chairman) is working in close co-operation with the Education Department, and is being actively assisted in all respects by the responsible authorities.

The Committee has endeavoured, by means of circulars, questionnaires, conferences, etc.,



to ascertain the views of the teachers on all aspects of this question. In the Transvaal alone there are about forty-five high schools and secondary schools, in addition to a large number of central (or junior high) schools, and the area covered is approximately equal to that of the British Isles.

Until 1931 the limit of compulsory education in the various Provinces was an attainment limit, St. VI, or an age limit of fifteen or sixteen years. From 1932 the Transvaal Provincial Executive had decided to raise the attainment limit to Form III (or St. VIII), the age limit remaining the same. Owing to financial stringency, however, it has been decided to postpone this extension of the attainment limit to a later date. In view of the experience already gained, the Committee is making a thorough investigation of the syllabus which, in certain respects, had been carelessly drafted, certain aspects being neglected and other over-emphasized. Since the work done in the high schools is based on the work of the primary school, the Nature Study as taught in the primary school (which at present has hardly realized expectations) should form the basis for the biological work in the high schools. The selection of material for Nature Study should be based on the principles of realism, relative novelty, utility (spiritual and social) and psychological, rather than logical, coherence. The work done in the primary school leaves a great deal to be desired in this respect. What the recommendations of this Committee will be I am not at present in a position to state, but it is fairly clear that the General Science Course must meet the requirements of all sections, including three main groups:—

- (a) Town boys—environment industrial;
- (b) Country boys—environment rural and agricultural;
- (c) Girls.

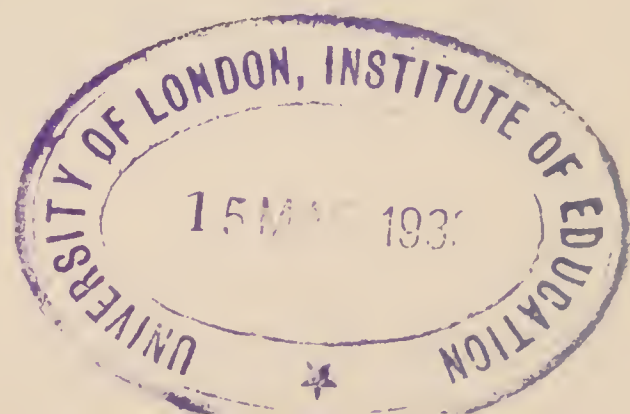
It ought, therefore, to comprise the following: (1) General Science for all, covering as wide a range as possible of the natural laws and phenomena in which a normal educated human being may reasonably be expected to be

interested, both from the cultural and utilitarian point of view; (2) General Science for boys in industrial areas (mechanics, chemistry, etc.); (3) General Science for boys in rural areas (topics related more particularly to agricultural and animal husbandry, etc.); (4) General Science for girls (topics related more particularly to hygiene and domestic science, etc.). The examination papers would contain questions on each of the four sections, but whereas Section 1 would be compulsory, candidates would be allowed to choose either Section 2, 3 or 4.

The work of this Committee in addition to what has been stated, would consist of a revision of the syllabus, and suggestions as regards the working of this syllabus. The Committee is also considering a General Science syllabus extending over five years. But it is necessary to emphasize that the whole essence of General Science lies not in the syllabus, but in the interpretation thereof. The syllabus may be interpreted in different ways and may be reduced to a superficial acquaintance with a few facts of common science, mere general knowledge, without any adequate practical work—all breadth and no depth. On the other hand, there is a danger that mere technical efficiency in the performance of certain laboratory experiments (especially in physics and chemistry) may become an end in itself.

Scope should be allowed for individual interpretation and for variation in the local environment; ecological, physiological and economic factors must be considered, and form and function associated.

The object should be to inculcate into the pupil scientific method and the spirit of science, in order to enable him to see the subject matter in a wide context of relationships, so as to provide a rich background for the interpretation of subsequent experience. The science teachers in the Transvaal are tackling this question with enthusiasm, and by means of vacation courses, special classes during term time, and geological excursions, etc., are endeavouring to fit themselves more completely for the work which lies before them.





# Rural Science

## in a Village Elementary School

F. RAYMENT

IN this article we shall attempt to give our interpretation of the meaning of the term Rural Science. We believe that Rural Science is not a narrow subject, to be taught within four walls, with the aid of an expensive equipment of scientific apparatus. Rather—our laboratory is the countryside, our aim is to bring an understanding of that countryside to our children, so that those who take up rural pursuits may do so with an increased interest and understanding, and those who go into the towns may take with them a love and appreciation of all they have left behind.

This can be best attained by using the environment of a country school in all its aspects for the purposes of education. It is not necessary for teachers to have any special training, but they do need the necessary enthusiasm and determination to make country life interesting to their pupils, and they must be ready to learn with them side by side.

Rural Science can be well begun in the Infant Classes. The smallest children can be trained to love animals, by bringing their pets to school occasionally, and by observing the birds during the varying seasons, partly by means of a bird table or nesting box. Tree seeds, oak, ash, chestnut, beech, can be collected and grown in pots, and as the young plants grow

they can be transplanted into larger pots, so that interest is maintained.

Simple weather observations can be kept. Of Nature Study, as generally known, there is none.

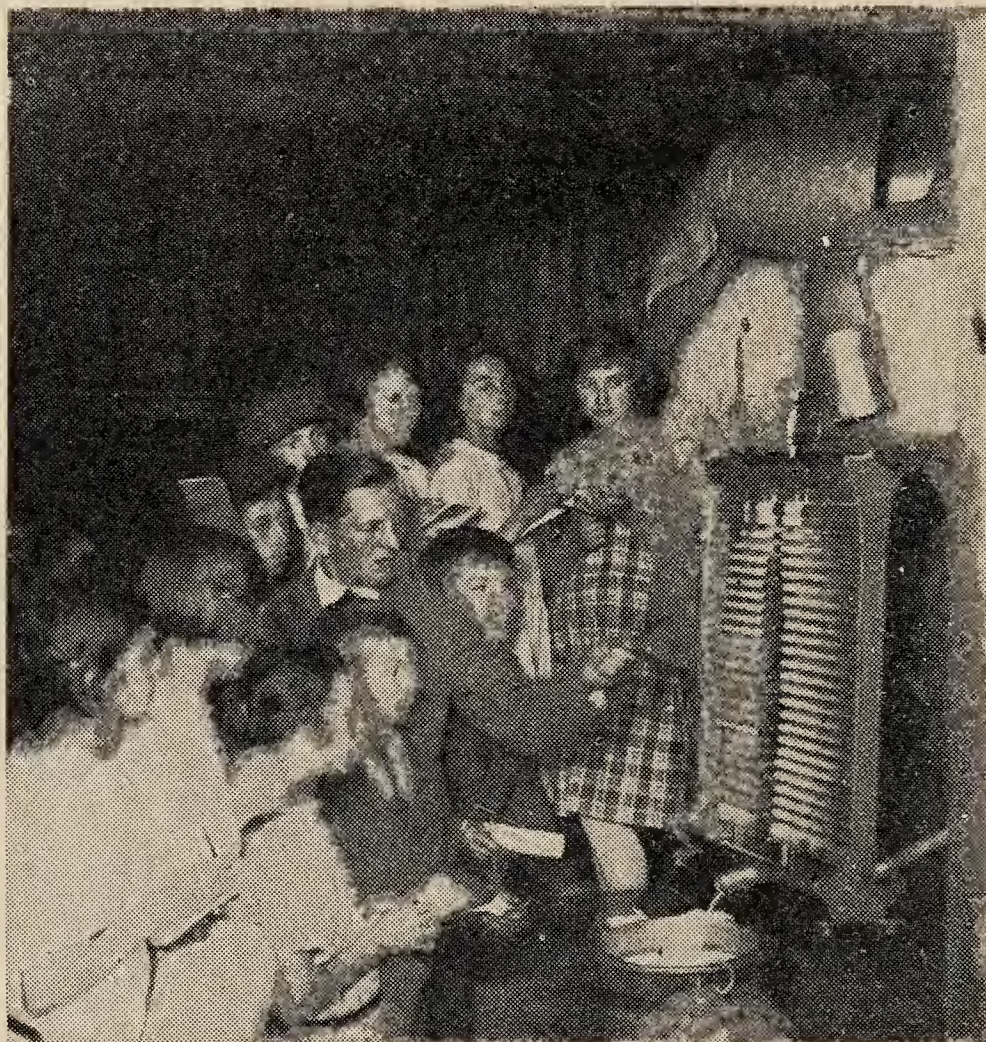
In the middle school we have the nearest approach to formal Nature Study. By the time the child reaches the age of eleven, he should have some knowledge of the elementary biology

of plant and animal life, and so we get such lessons as: Hibernation and Migration; Functions of Parts of a Plant; Garden Pests and Friends; the Struggle for Existence in Hedgerow, Field and Woodland; the Harvest of the Wayside. These children should also be quite familiar with the names of most of the wild flowers, the wayside trees and the common birds, which can be best accomplished by rambles down the lanes, or across the fields and commons.

If all this ground has been covered, in

the last years of school life, the time given to Nature Study can be devoted to practical work which, in our own school, takes the following forms:—

(a) *The School Garden.*—This is a very full and efficient laboratory, where the life cycles of plants and insects can be studied. Here, our combined woodwork and science room is most useful. Simple apparatus for the more formal science lessons is prepared,



*Watching Milk-Cooling*

[Hertingfordbury C. of E. School]



and articles of utility for the garden are made.

Flowers, fruit and vegetables are grown, not from the point of view of production alone, but with the object of training in observation and the demonstration of general scientific principles.

Experiments with manures are carried out, but care is taken not to draw general conclusions from an isolated experiment. Results of several years' working must be taken into account before conclusions can be drawn.

The propagation plot is of first importance in our school garden, and here all forms of propagation of fruit and flowers are carried on, e.g. the raising of stocks for roses, apples and pears, the budding of roses, budding and grafting of apples, pears, plums, etc., and cuttings of bush fruits and flowering shrubs.

Under the guidance of the East Malling Research Station, we have made a special feature of growing apple trees on stocks of varying vigour, and this demonstration has supplied us with data for graphs illustrating the effects of root stocks on the resultant growths. The crops of apples which have resulted have proved to the boys in a very practical manner the value of selecting good, sound, fruit stocks, suited to the soil on which they are to be planted, combined with a sound knowledge of the uses of pruning and spraying. Variety trials of fruit and vegetables are proving to be not only instructive to the boys, but helpful to their parents and amateur gardeners in the neighbourhood.

In another corner of the garden we have our weather recording station, consisting as far as possible, of school-made apparatus. This does much to help accurate observation and recording. The records must be continuous, and arrangements must be made for carrying them on over week-ends and holidays if they are to be of real use. The working out of monthly and annual averages and summaries, and comparisons made with the results of previous years, all help with the teaching and understanding of arithmetic.

(b) *Farm Visits*.—Visits can be made to farms and to neighbouring fields to study any interesting processes which may be taking place. Here the chief difficulty is to select from the tremendous variety of subjects those which

will prove to be of the greatest educational value.

A visit to a farm for an hour or so provides material for an indefinite number of useful indoor occupations. Take, for instance, a visit to a rick-yard, where threshing is being carried out. The children will make rough—probably very rough—notes of what they can see or discover by means of questions (and it is surprising how patiently a farm labourer will explain his work if he has interested listeners). Later, these rough notes will form the basis of lessons in arithmetic and composition, and also become a subject for general discussion. The field from which this particular rick was harvested could be measured, and its area obtained. One problem of this kind will perhaps teach square measure better than working dozens of abstract exercises. Then the total amount of corn obtained from the rick could be ascertained, and so the production per acre can be worked out. By obtaining the figures from other fields the crops could be compared and the reasons for variation (such as difference in seed used, cultivation, manuring and soil) can be considered and discussed.

A visit to a dairy and cowshed and a study of the milk recording book will lead to discussions on clean milk, tuberculin tested milk, and the varying milk yields of different breeds, and the records of selected cows can be illustrated by means of graphs. Incidentally experience will be gained in the knowledge and importance of food hygiene.

The operations of ploughing, sowing and harvesting—in fact, every process on the farm—can be usefully applied in one form or another.

(c) *Rural Survey*.—This part of our work is of a very varied nature, and is constantly presenting us with some new feature of interest. So far we have been able to make several interesting maps of the locality, including one showing the geology, on which we have noted every possible source of the water supply of the parish, including springs, pumps, deep and shallow wells, rivers and streams. Most of the arable fields in the vicinity have been tested for lime and the results have been recorded on a map. The above maps have been compiled from information collected by the children themselves—mainly in their own time—the final



maps being prepared by a few of the older children on tracings or enlargements from the Ordnance Survey maps of the district. We are now at work on a Land Utilization Map of the district, which shows by means of appropriate colourings on the Six-Inch Ordnance Map the uses to which every plot of land is put.

Another map has been prepared showing the position of the farms and local industries, together with the sites of extinct industries, as far as they can be ascertained. 'Cropping maps' have also been compiled from the records of individual children.

Research work has been done by the older children in hunting up references to the parish in County Histories, the County Court Sessions Roll, etc. A census of live stock, both farm and cottage, is taken annually in the spring. The annual fluctuations are recorded on graphs, and some informative discussions are provided in accounting for any changes.

(d) *Domestic Science*.—In addition to the

ordinary course of domestic science, the girls are taught to use the vegetables and fruit produced in the garden for the making of pickles, jams and preserves.

(e) *Indoor Science*.—By this is meant experimental and practical science with the aid of apparatus. Only the minimum amount necessary to illustrate general principles is done. The following are a few examples:—

(1) Experiments to illustrate the varying capillarity of soils of different texture, and under different conditions; (2) Water Cultures; (3) Sand Cultures; (4) The Mechanical Analysis of Soils; (5) The Testing of Soils for Lime.

In 2 and 3 above it has been found, from experience, very desirable to have every jar and flower-pot duplicated or triplicated.

It will be seen, therefore, that Rural Science, treated in this way, is more than a subject, but is rather the groundwork of most of the subjects on the school time-table.



*Scholars at Local Ploughing Match*

[Hertingfordbury C. of E. School]



# Other Experiments in Rural Science Teaching

The Watton-at-Stone School, Herts, has for the last three years adopted the syllabus of rural education as set out by the Hertfordshire County Council, one aim of which is to awaken the intelligence of country children by stimulating their interest in their surroundings.

Activities include: (1) Periodic visits to the farms of the districts, studying general features, acreage, farm buildings, census of the live stock and breeds, the system of rotation in use, in conjunction with large scale maps showing rotation followed for the previous five years and rainfall for each year.

Scholars observe ploughing, drilling, hay-making, harvesting, threshing, etc. The visits are correlated with practically all subjects of the curriculum. A description of each visit, with illustrations, is entered in notebooks provided for the purpose.

(2) The school possesses large gardens where work, largely of an experimental nature, is carried on. In the past year the gardens included eight plots for testing various artificial manures. Peas and beans, potatoes and carrots, cauliflower and carrots were grown; nitrogenous, phosphatic and potassic manures being employed; crops grown under different dressings were weighed and compared; observations were entered in notebooks and results recorded graphically.

In the agricultural section a plot was set aside for growing sugar-beet, swedes, mangolds; one half was given a dressing of sulphate of potash. The products of dressed and undressed soil were carefully weighed, and profit per acre calculated. The sugar-beet was sent to the sugar refinery at Felstead.

A plot was used to show the effect of a quickly acting nitrogenous fertilizer. It was divided into four equal parts and dressings of the fertilizer of different strengths were added. The crop—May Queen lettuce—soon made the results of the fertilizer apparent in differences of colour, size, etc. Each crop was weighed and the four totals compared. Results were entered graphically on a chart.

Experiments were carried out with potatoes and various artificial manures, with stable manure added according to plan. In September the potatoes were carefully dug and graded into ware, chats, seed and diseased (it was a very wet season).

In addition scholars receive instruction in grafting, budding, pruning, spraying. Several herbaceous borders are cultivated in an experimental way. Throughout the year the work is correlated with outdoor activities. In this connection all the apparatus set up by the scholars and that illustrating such experiments as capillarity is made in the woodwork class.

Scholars study various forms of insect pests. These are reared in breeding cages especially designed in the woodwork class. In autumn and winter a search is made, when pruning, for eggs of pests such as the tickle moth, codling moth, etc. These are carefully preserved and the various stages studied. Essays are written illustrating their life histories.

Williton C.E. School, Somerset: *General outline scheme of indoor work.* (i) Junior work; mainly introductory to senior school by arousing interest and leading the children to ask and if possible discover the cause of simple phenomena.

(ii) Senior work: (a) biology (plant, animal and human studies, structure, life cycle, environment and essential conditions for growth); (b) simple mechanics; (c) air and water studies; (d) soil studies; (e) elementary electricity.

Illustrations for the indoor scheme are drawn from gardens (home and school), school and farm livestock, farm buildings and machinery (by visits), houses, rivers, ponds, quarries, etc. Science lessons are made to bear on local conditions, in an endeavour to arouse the interest of the child and so possibly develop a deeper love of the country side. An attempt has also been made to develop in the child a profitable means of employing his leisure.

*Methods Devised*—(1) Organized visits to farms, nurseries, apiaries, and other places of agricultural, horticultural or scientific interest. Such visits have to be carefully planned, permission from owners (who frequently act as guides and instructors) obtained, and notes written for future class discussion, or written work in composition or arithmetic.

(2) By the keeping of poultry.

The local authority provided the raw materials for this, and the houses and appliances were made by the boys at the woodwork centre. One hundred and ten one shilling shares were issued, and with this capital two runs were fenced and stocked with White Leghorns and Rhode Island Reds. All chicks were hatched under broody hens and fed on scientific lines, as advocated by the Cannington (Somerset) Farm Institute. Surplus cockerels were fattened and disposed of and the stock birds were prepared and exhibited. Pullets were trap-nested. Each boy took part in these operations, and in addition kept strict egg records, live stock records, and balance sheets. At the end of the year a 50 per cent dividend was declared, after £2. 10s. had been transferred to a reserve fund. The boys did all the work, were paid 6d. a day for holiday labour, and obtained eggs at 2d. a dozen less than local shop prices. No difficulty has been experienced in disposing of eggs or live stock, and many sittings have been sold and bespoke. A boy leaving school last July auctioned his share in the school playground and obtained 1s. 2½d. for a shilling share.

In addition to the large amount of arithmetic, hand-work, written work, drawing and reading which the above makes *real*, matter for scientific study abounds. For instance, egg structure, development of chick, scientific feeding, rearing, ventilation, housing, breeding; the structure of the fowl, diseases and methods of control, blood testing, etc., etc., all arise.

Recently an apiary has been established on similar lines and this involves microscopic work and a fresh line of study. Owing to the poor summer, however, it is not anticipated that this company will declare a 50 per cent dividend!



**Blackford Council School, Wedmore, Somerset.**

—The rural sciences scheme in force at this school makes little differentiation between the course given to boys and girls. All the illustrations are drawn from rural life and occupations, and the work is closely linked with the garden, farm and field. Almost all the apparatus required is made by the children themselves in the handicraft class. The children are encouraged to do experimental work, devised as far as possible by themselves. Attention is paid to the historical side, the past allocation of fields and systems of land tenure being compared with the present. The course is designed to encourage and develop hobbies which will pull against the facile attractions of the towns.

The course may be divided under the following sub-headings:—

*Soil Studies.* Formation of soil; soil constituents, plant foods in the soil; manuring; water relations of the soil; soil temperatures; life in the soil; types of farming.

*Plant Physiology.* Germination studies; roots and their work; the green leaf; photosynthesis and transpiration; biological study of the flowering plant.

*Magnetism and Electricity.* (Very essential now that electricity is being used in country districts.) Magnets and electro-magnetism; current detection and measurements; electric circuits—bell, light, telephone; motors and generators; resistance—heating and lighting, switches, fuses and insulation meters.

*Mechanics.* Working of pumps, engines (various); farm implements; sluices.

*Poultry.* General management—incubation, rearing, marketing, feeding, blood testing; diseases and remedies. Book-keeping; comparison of breeds; proper housing (all applications made by boys in school).

*Bee-keeping.* General management and making of appliances.

*Land Surveying.* Offset survey.

*Meteorology.* Daily records of temperatures (maximum and minimum); barometer readings; rainfall and wind.

Monthly and annual records made, and comparisons drawn from details recorded during the past ten years. (Weather study is carried on throughout the school, from infants upwards.)

**Shebbear School, Beaworthy, Devon**—This is a school in a small village six miles from the nearest railway station, and sixteen from the nearest town Bideford. It contains a post office, a pub, a church and a college, otherwise all the inhabitants are directly or indirectly connected with the land. The headmaster, realizing that not one farmer in fifty knows the names, habits and values (feeding and manuring) of the grasses which grow on their farms, gives lessons on grasses in an effort to improve English pasture land. Collections of grasses are made, species labelled and their main features of value appended.

The effect of such instruction on the community is given in the following anecdotes:—

Farmer A to Schoolmaster: 'My man's boy was picking grasses the other day and telling me all about them, which were of great feeding value and which were weeds.' (The boy above was a rather dull specimen from a farm labourer's family.)

Smallholder B. to local cake and grain merchant: 'What I've been calling grasses all my life my girls come home from school and tell me is weeds. I know more about grasses now than I ever did in my life.'

Pea thrip, woolly aphis, and other insect pests are studied by the children, the local outbreaks being noted and checked. Present pupil to schoolmaster: 'Gaw, Sir, Mr. M. iddn getting no peas at all in his garden. All the flowers is dropping off. I woulddner bring any down cause I might bring it (disease) to your garden.'



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# Notes of Interest to Science Teachers

## The Science Masters' Association

Membership of the Association is open (i) to masters engaged in teaching science in secondary schools, who *either* have a university degree or its equivalent *or* are registered by the Teachers' Registration Council, (ii) to masters in preparatory schools who have the qualifications mentioned above and whose schools are approved by the committee, (iii) to a limited number of other persons who have contributed to the advancement of science teaching in secondary schools.

Candidates for election should apply to:—

F. Fairbrother, Cedars School, Leighton Buzzard, Beds, from whom further information can be obtained.

The annual subscription is 10s., payable to the Treasurer immediately notification of election has been received and thereafter on 1st October each year. This subscription also entitles members to receive current issues of the *School Science Review*.

*President:* Cyril Norwood, M.A., D.Litt.

*Chairman:* W. H. Barrett, Harrow School.

*Secretaries:* Charles Mayes, Eton College, Windsor; E. Nightingale, St. Albans School.

*Treasurer:* P. W. Oscroft, The Knoll, Uppingham, Rutland.

the universities and the schools. The problems which affect the science teaching in the upper part of the school are greatly influenced by the entrance and scholarship examinations for the universities, and the discussions which have taken place from time to time have been of great assistance not only to the schools, but also to the university examiners.

Each year there are two general meetings, one in the summer term and one in the winter. The winter one is held in London, and, in alternate years, in the Christmas holidays to enable country members to attend it. In the summer, the meeting is held in a provincial town, if possible a university town, and always on a Saturday, so that teachers from a distance can be present. The subscription is 10s. a year, and this includes the 'School Science Review', which contains articles mainly written by the members of the Science Masters' Association. The present officials of the Association are:—

*President:* Miss Drummond, North London Collegiate School.

*Vice-President:* Dr. Delf, Westfield College, London.

*Secretary:* Miss M. E. Birt, St. Paul's School.

*Treasurer:* Miss Redman, Parliament Hill School

## The Association of Women Science Teachers

The Association of Women Science Teachers was inaugurated on 6th July, 1912. Before this date science teachers in girls' schools discussed their problems at meetings of the Association of Assistant Mistresses. In 1912 it was felt that the number of science teachers in girls' schools was sufficient to form a separate society and that the solution of many of their problems would be greatly assisted if Head Mistresses and lecturers at the Universities could belong to the same association. Anyone who is or has been a science teacher or lecturer in any college or secondary school is now eligible to be a member of the A.W.S.T. The Association started with quite a few members. Its first honorary member was Dr. Sophie Bryant, of the North London Collegiate School; and its first President was Dr. E. A. Stoney, of the London School of Medicine.

The formation of the Association has been well justified and the members of it have done valuable work in co-ordinating the teaching of science schools and in discussing many problems which affect the welfare of science teachers, e.g. (a) the type of room best suited for a school laboratory. Plans were drawn out and made accessible to anyone contemplating building new rooms. (b) Books most suitable either as text-books or for the school science library. Lists are made out periodically, and these prove of great value to country members. (c) Syllabuses of work in the different branches of science. This is a continual problem and many meetings have been held since 1912 in framing the outlines of chemical, physical and biological schemes of work.

Perhaps one of the most useful pieces of work done by the A.W.S.T. is in the formation of a link between

## The School Nature Study Union

The Union as a whole aims at bringing together for mutual help and advice those interested in Nature Study in general, and its place in education in particular. This it seeks to do by means of meetings in winter, excursions throughout the year, and the quarterly publication of 'School Nature Study' (edited by Miss von Wyss). The annual subscription is 4s., and entitles members to the quarterly journal. Further particulars may be obtained from the General Secretary, Mr. H. E. Turner, 45 Cheviot Road, West Norwood, London, S.E.27.

## The British Science Guild

is not a scientific society, or an institute of industry, or an educational association, but a national organization in which the interests of science, industry and education are represented and their activities co-ordinated for the common good.

The Guild, founded by the late Sir Norman Lockyer in 1905, aims at bringing together as members of the Guild all those throughout the British Commonwealth interested in science and scientific method, in order to convince the people by means of mediation, consultations, publications, meetings and other suitable measures, of the necessity of applying the methods of science to all branches of human endeavour, and thus to further the progress and increase the welfare of the Commonwealth.

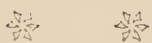
Further particulars and list of publications from the Secretary, British Science Guild, 6 John Street, Adelphi, London, W.C.2.



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### Biological Teaching and Eugenics

Ever since any attempt has been made to spread a knowledge of eugenics, an endeavour to secure widespread teaching of biology has formed a major objective of those interested. There is not room here to give any history of this movement, but as its origin is sometimes misunderstood, it may be helpful to summarize the kind of learning which forms the backbone of the eugenic movement.

When a eugenicist speaks of 'Laws of Life' he is not thinking mainly of metabolism and catabolism and so forth (though these would never be excluded), but of those major laws which underlie evolution—variation, heredity, natural selection and then, more particularly, the modern distinction between individual variations arising in response to the environment, and germinal variations which alone affect the race. This last category is, of course, the material on which environment in the guise of the whole assembly of selective forces controls the trend of the race.

Simple Mendelism can be taught to children either by illustrations verified by observation or by simple breeding experiments in the garden and with pets. Incidentally, the basic facts of reproduction and parenthood are learned as a side issue, while all concentration is focussed on the result of the cross. At the same time, heredity without any special moral disquisition drives in the fact of the basic responsibility of one generation for the next. It has, in practice, been found that at any age such teaching lays a sound basis for any subsequent study of sex life in the more special sense. It leaves no room for shocks or sentimentalism. Teachers are fortunate to-day in having before them Sir George Newman's frequent references in last year's issue of the 'Health of the School Child' to the absolute necessity of simple teaching in biology as a foundation to any hope of a rise in the standard of national health.



A Diploma in Biology has been recently established at the University College of Wales, Aberystwyth, with a view to helping in the present period of transition through which the subject is passing in relation to its adaptation for school teaching. Educationists generally hold that biology is a desirable subject for school instruction and the Board of Education has frequently expressed itself in this sense, pointing out at the same time that one of the greatest difficulties in the way is the lack of trained teachers. Biology is not a subject generally taken by intending teachers, because it has not in the past been required for school teaching and

students coming to Universities do not often take biological subjects because they have not begun them at school. The present Diploma is intended to help in the breaking down of this vicious circle. In the girls' schools there is a general tendency to replace botany by biology in the curriculum now, and a teacher well qualified in botany can, by taking the diploma, fit herself to do justice to biology also. In the boys' schools the demand is less, chemistry having been the subject traditionally emphasized in them, but the demand for biology has commenced here also and is growing, and a master of say, chemistry, who has done no biology before, may, by taking the diploma, put himself in a position to introduce biology under present conditions, the supply of men trained to degree standard in biological science being small. The course is arranged so that emphasis may be given to either the animal or the plant side of the work, according to the needs of individual candidates. A few candidates have already taken the diploma, either graduates or holders of the Certificate of a two-year Training College.



### Publications

While unable ourselves to compile a list of publications we would recommend the following to our readers:—

(1) The excellent list of the science books suitable for school libraries. A new edition of this list has been prepared by a joint committee of the Association of Women Science Teachers, and the Science Association. This is obtainable from the Rev. Canon Kirkland, Kings School, Ely, and Miss M. E. Birt, St. Paul's School, London, W.6. Price 1s. 1d.

(2) The publications of the British Social Hygiene Council, Carteret House, Carteret Street, London, S.W.1.

(3) The publications of the British Science Guild, 6 John Street, Adelphi, London, W.C.2., including lectures by Sir Oliver Lodge, Professor Julian Huxley, Sir Arthur Thomson, Dr. H. H. Dale, and others.

(4) *Village Survey-Making*. An Oxfordshire experiment. Printed and published by H.M. Stationery Office, Adastral House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2. Price, 1s.

(5) Particulars of school broadcasts on scientific subjects and illustrated brochures may be obtained from the British Broadcasting Corporation, Savoy Hill, London, W.C.2.

Information may also be obtained from *School Nature Study* and the *School Science Review* (see above).



# International Notes

## New Education Fellowship News

*Germany*—In spite of economic difficulties, the German 'Common Language' Conference of the Fellowship, held at Dortmund from 3rd to 5th October last, attracted more than a hundred participants from all parts of Germany. The Germans from Czecho-Slovakia were represented by Professor Metzner, and London Headquarters by Mr. Rawson.

The industrial town of Dortmund was purposely chosen for the meeting, to accord with its theme, 'Education and the World of the Modern Child.' A number of excursions introduced Conference members to the life of the town, with all its educational problems. In order to leave plenty of time for these excursions and for discussion, only four lectures were arranged, to which one public lecture was added. This was given by Dr. Weismantel and united Conference members with a large audience from Dortmund and the district. Dr. Martha Muchow's address on the 'World of the Child' was summarized in November's *New Era*. Dr. Iseman, of Nordhausen, drew attention to the fact that children who cannot adjust themselves to a difficult environment run the danger of becoming pathological. They should be sent to scientifically conducted psychological clinics where they will be given the chance of developing a balanced attitude to their surroundings and in particular to human society. Dr. Erna Corte emphasized the importance of the family to the child. Even the disunited family life of city dwellers is still a refuge and support for the child amid hostile surroundings. Dr. Weismantel summed up all these observations in his account of the social disintegration due to the coming of industrialism which was taking place in Silesia, whither he had been sent in order to make a report on changing social conditions. He thus led up to the theme of the Fellowship's next International Conference at Nice.

During the meeting, the German section of the Fellowship was officially inaugurated. An Executive Committee of seven members was elected, with Dr. Weniger of Altona, as Chairman, Dr. Gebhard, of Hamburg, as Secretary, and Dr. Sonntag, also of Hamburg, as Treasurer. The other members are Dr. Heinrich Becker (Berlin), Dr. Ulich (Dresden), Dr. Weismantel (Marktbreit), Mr. Friedrich Schieker (Stuttgart). Dr. Elizabeth Rotten, as head of the German Bureau, and Dr. Martha Muchow, as German representative on the International Council, are *ex-officio* members.

*Paraguay*—We extend the warmest welcome to one of the most recently formed sections of the Fellowship, that of Paraguay, which came into existence last winter as a result of Dr. Ferrière's visit. It is good to know that Professor Ramon I. Cardozo is both President of the Section and its representative on the International Council. As Director-General of schools, Professor Cardozo has been responsible for the reform of schools in Paraguay which has been proceeding since 1924 on New Education lines. All

those who wish to see what can be done to modernize a whole system of education and who can read simple Spanish, should get the May number of *La Nueva Enseñanza*, which contains an account of the Education Conference held at Asuncion in February, 1931.

The Conference was convened by Professor Cardozo. Attendance was obligatory on all Directors of Education and all heads of Normal and Secondary schools, while all other teachers were invited to take part. Its object was to trace the next steps in the reform. Of its six sections, one was devoted to the 'New School' and one to reports on the success of the Dalton Plan from schools which had been officially experimenting with it. The resolutions passed by the Conference re-affirmed the recommendations made by the Director-General in his opening speech. Normal schools must act as inspiration for the reform. Inspectors must read and study. It is their job to propagate the ideas of the New Education, and for this purpose they must act as the companions and guides of the teachers, being ready to lecture on the new methods and to resolve problems on request. They are also enjoined to awaken the enthusiasm of society for education and to further the collaboration of home and school. Special arrangements are made for rural inspectors, a part of whose task is to instruct rural teachers, whether men or women, in the methods of scientific agriculture, including the organization of co-operative societies. A study of the whole number would well repay those who are no longer thinking in terms of a piecemeal reform of education.



## General News

*An Exhibition of Soviet Education*—A very interesting Exhibition of Soviet Education, especially collected for this country by the Cultural Associations of all parts of the Soviet Union, will be held from 2nd to 11th January, at the University of London Union, Torrington Square, W.C.1. The Exhibition will be open from 10 a.m. till 10 p.m. each day and admission will be 6d.

The rapid progress in overcoming illiteracy, even among the most backward peoples, is illustrated by charts and the general development of the Educational System is shown by diagrams and schemes of work. New developments in educational method are shown in photographs, models and actual specimens of children's work. Polytechnization, the most recent development, is well illustrated, but artistic work, models of the modern theatre and educational posters, prevent any misconception as to the over-emphasis of the technical side of education.

A few years ago Russian educationalists were looking to the progressive educationalists of the world for guidance in their great experiment. This exhibition will present to us some of their results.



*The Society for Cultural Relations* writes :

Feeling that there is a widespread interest amongst educationists in the new methods in teaching and organization adopted by the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics, this Society proposes to organize next Easter a tour for teachers and other educationists who may like to see for themselves what is actually being done in Soviet schools.

Visits will be arranged to all types of institutions, from nursery schools to research academies, covering a considerable area of the Russian Federation. The tour will take about three weeks inclusive of travel, approximately twelve days being spent in Russia. The cost will not exceed £30, and the party will be limited to thirty persons. The cost will include travel in the U.S.S.R., hotels and theatres. Further details as to dates and route will be issued later. A booking fee of 5s. will be payable to the Society on completion of the Application Form. The last date in February for receiving applications will be announced later. All inquiries should be addressed to the Secretary, Society for Cultural Relations, 1 Montague Street, London, W.C.1.



### Nursery School Association News

The following are brief outlines of two addresses given by members of the N.S.A. in the Nursery and Infants' School Section of the British Commonwealth Education Conference held under the auspices of the New Education Fellowship last July :—

#### THE EQUIPMENT OF PLAYROOM AND GARDEN

*Miss J. N. Lowson*

Superintendent of the Grassmarket Child Garden,  
Edinburgh

Two of the most deeply rooted human instincts are the instincts to possess and to create. A starved babyhood and childhood means that the possessive instinct wins the race. The problem that lies before us is how to equip our Nursery Schools so that the children leave us creators rather than possessors. Two essentials are sunlit space and a sufficiency of toys. We must have in our playrooms and gardens (1) toys that evoke thought, (2) toys that evoke the social spirit, and (3) toys that lead to constructive initiative. And what of sense training? Give the child freedom in the spending of his time and we cannot hinder him from training his senses. No Nursery School equipment is complete without Montessori apparatus because of the strong hold it has on the children's

interest, any more than it is complete without dolls, their tea-sets and beds, barrows and engines, and a wealth of other things that enable a child to live out life in his play. The child's attitude to whatever enthral his interest at the moment is the same in quality as the attitude of the enthralled adult student. The garden fills a place in any child's life that nothing else can fill. Given sun, grass, trees, flowers, sand and running water, sticks and stones, and all the 'wee beasties' that live therein and thereunder, our Nursery Schools would need little other equipment. Give the children freedom to play and their choice is always prompted by their need. Their play must not be confused with the relaxation demanded by adult and adolescent human beings. Sentimental Tommy spoke truth when he said to Elspeth: 'If I was to hear some day of work I could put my heart into as if it were a game . . . Oh, the blather I would make!'

#### THE PROBLEM OF THE UNQUALIFIED HELPER

*Miss B. M. Sutton*

Superintendent of the Grove Nursery School, Leeds  
England

Two kinds of unqualified helper are available, the girl of 14 who has just left an elementary school, and the girl of about 17 who has been through a secondary school. The two main questions to be considered are the suitability of each type for the work, and the employment of the girls when they leave the Nursery School. Of the two types the younger girl is usually in closer touch with the children. She will, however, fall short of the older girl in the care of the children's physical habits and in fostering their powers of speech. In all probability better work will be done with probationers of the older type.

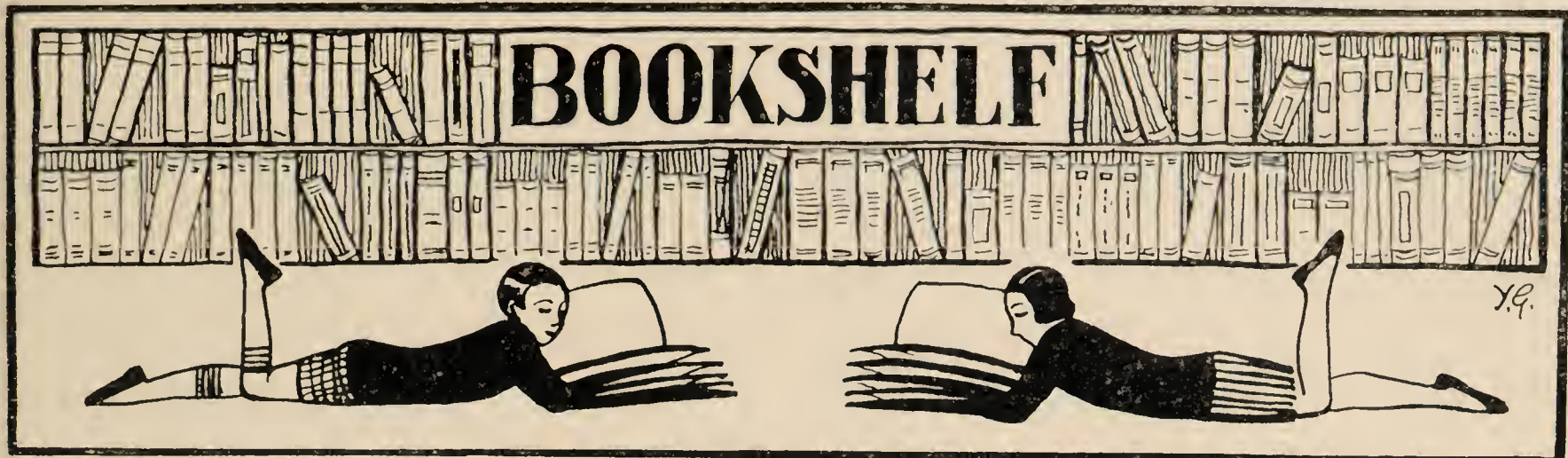
As a result of the Education Act of 1918, a third type is now becoming available—the 14-year-old girl who, as an infant, was herself trained in a Nursery School. As regards subsequent employment for the younger class of probationer, in one case each of five girls of 16 trained at Leeds went to work in a factory. Not one parent would allow the girl to leave home and 'live in' as a nursery maid. As regards the employment of the older type of probationer, it would seem that the ideal girl for the Nursery School is one who wishes to become some kind of trained nurse. No good training school for nurses will take girls younger than 19. At the Nursery School the girl will learn to handle healthy children in the right way, and she will enter nursing with her enthusiasm undimmed. She will also prove an excellent helper for any superintendent.

### INDEX

1931

A complete index of *The New Era*, 1931, has been prepared and may be obtained (price 6d. post free) on application.





**L'Amérique Latine Adopte l'Ecole Active.**  
By Adolphe Ferrière. (Delachaux & Niestlé, S.A.,  
Neuchâtel, 4 Rue de l'Hôpital : or Paris VIIe,  
26 Rue St. Dominique. 4 fr. suisses, 20ff.)

This account of Dr. Ferrière's lecture tour and impressions in South America will rejoice the heart of all New Educationalists. Its title is well-merited. There is no doubt of the reality of the awakening of the Republics of South America to the constructive power and inherent value of the new education. If they continue as they have begun they will soon leave Europe behind them. The surprises that await the intrepid traveller are well illustrated by Dr. Ferrière's story of how he came to visit Paraguay, where he discovered a whole state system of education in the process of reformation along New Education lines. What this means can be read in *La Nueva Enseñanza* for May, 1931, which is reported on in this number's International Notes. Would that we had more ambassadors of education who would thus draw closer the bonds of fellowship between Europe and other continents! Our thanks are once again due to Dr. Ferrière for this stimulating volume.

W. T. R. Rawson

**L'Ecole sur Mesure à la Mesure du Maître.**  
By Adolphe Ferrière. (Genève : chez l'auteur,  
Imprimerie Atar, 11 rue de la Dôle. 4 fr. suisses.)

This little book is an elaboration of a lecture given by Dr. Ferrière at a meeting of the Swiss Section of the Fellowship at Basle on 27th June last. Its theme, the relation of the teacher to new methods, is rapidly becoming one of the central problems of educational reform. Since the new education depends upon a new attitude, it is not sufficient for a teacher to adopt a number of new methods in order to make a new school. Dr. Ferrière points out that all teachers tend subconsciously to teach in the way they have been taught. The best teachers of new methods are therefore those who have themselves been educated in new schools. In a practical and understanding discussion of how to re-educate the teacher trained along the old lines, Dr. Ferrière suggests stages by which a gradual renovation of the school may be brought about without any too great demands being made upon the old-fashioned teacher. Three requirements for reform are enunciated: (1) New teachers

must be trained in and by the new methods; (2) Supplementary courses in new methods must be given to teachers already trained; (3) The inspectorate itself must be trained in new methods and in psychology. As is usual with all works by Dr. Ferrière, this volume is fully documented and constitutes in some sort a compendium of the views and practice of new educators on this subject.

W. T. R. Rawson

**Biology and Mankind.** By S. A. McDowall.  
(Cambridge University Press. 6s.)

The English Public School system has never yet lost its power of self-renewal. No sooner do intelligent observers declare that it is dead or dying than it rises once more like a phoenix resplendent from its ashes, presenting us with a new and astonishing transformation. This book is proof that one English Public School at least still possesses this old power of adaptation. It is a brilliant success, both as a work of general popular appeal and as a text-book for secondary schools. Exciting as a novel, it yet contains a scientific and detailed account of the methods and findings of recent biology together with a discussion of their bearing upon the problems of political democracy. Of its accuracy and scientific temper we may be assured by the fact that its author was a pupil of Professor Bateman during his rediscovery of Mendelism. Its publication should help forward a re-orientation of science teaching in secondary schools which is long overdue. We need a cultural course in science for both science and language students, which will present the facts and method of science in their proper relation to philosophy and psychology and the problems of everyday life. The five year course in General Science for classical students at Winchester, described by Mr. McDowall in this issue of the *New Era*, was designed to fill this need. To judge by this volume, which contains the lectures delivered during the last term of the course, it fulfils its purpose to perfection. Two quotations will represent its spirit. In support of his advocacy of the voluntary sterilization of the mental deficient, Mr. McDowall writes: 'To fear knowledge and responsibility is the worst cowardice.' To this he adds: 'The last thing I want my students to do is to accept my views, but I do want them to weigh the facts and think for themselves.'



The reviewer would like to enter one caveat. The author is persuaded that an introduction to biology should come at the end of a course of general science. Yet, as he phrases it, 'In the presence of life the watertight compartments of our teaching are broken down.' Would it not be better that they should never have been erected? Is it not rather the lack of a proper technique that has prevented us from using the phenomena of life as the basis of much of our science teaching? The interview with Professor Julian Huxley published in this number of the *New Era* makes out a good case for this supposition, which would be in line with all the experience derived from the development of educational methods in recent years.

**The Will to Live.** By J. H. Badley. (George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1931.)

This book is a very sincere and able attempt to give an outline of the principles of psychology for the special help and guidance of young students. The author tells us that it owes its origin to the request of some boys and girls in their last year at school for some account of theories such as those of the psychoanalysts, to which reference is now common.

A very wide range of subjects connected with psychology is explored in the book—instinct, habit, thought, emotion, complexes, and many more.

The book is the product of a thoughtful, scholarly mind, and it corrects some of the grosser theories of some schools of psychoanalysts, though it is sympathetic in the main to a new science.

But it is a matter for argument whether many aspects of the subjects dealt with need be pressed upon boys and girls still at school. Very few of the latter would understand this book. Its study would appear to the reviewer to be more appropriate to a later age.

**Parents' Problems.** By Hon. Mrs. St. Aubyn. (Constable, 5s.)

Here is the sort of book for which many parents of the educated class must have been looking for a long time. Though much has been written of late years on the subject of parentcraft from the point of view of the working-class mother, the doctor and the nurse, the average parent has undoubtedly been overlooked. To this book, however, written by a very modern mother of five children, they can safely turn for a solution of some of the parental difficulties with which most people find themselves confronted sooner or later, and although they cannot expect all the solutions to be to their liking, they cannot fail to be helpful.

The ages dealt with range from infancy up to that time of emancipation from a great measure of parental control which comes with the possession of a latch-key. The problems considered include, among many others, the furnishing of the nursery, the selection of a nurse, clothing at various ages, character training, the choice of schools, the unattractive, the difficult and the rebel child, the physical care of the child, toys and games, sex instruction and religious teaching. Useful bibliographies are appended to each chapter,

and the terse style in which the book is written should appeal to those who like to find their information in a nutshell.

J. Halford

**Joan. A Story from Life.** By Edith L. Read Mumford. (Longmans, 2s. 6d.)

This beautiful little book is a true account of two and a half critical years in the early childhood of a problem child, undoubtedly made so by the influence of her first nurse. Joan was a child of well-to-do parents, who loved her and honestly believed they were doing the best they could for her, including their choice of a nannie. But parents do not always realize the dangers to which they expose their children, nor the far-reaching irrevocable consequences which may result from an unwise selection or lack of adequate supervision of the woman they engage as nurse. Francis Thompson, in his essay on Shelley, asks: 'Know you what it is to be a child? It is to have a spirit yet streaming from the waters of baptism . . . to believe in 'loveliness, to believe in unbelief.' Yet at the age of three and a half Joan had lost faith in everyone. She knew of no security. If you read between the lines of this simple, unexaggerated story, you will realize the depths of helpless suffering endured beneath Joan's 'naughtiness.' Would anyone deliberately wish to put a child to such torture? Of course not, but is not carelessness equally culpable? Mrs. Mumford tells the tale of the methods by which Joan passed from hopelessness to hopefulness, in a very charming manner, and one appreciates the loving care and understanding which she ultimately encountered from her second nannie all the more after realizing the evil effects of the first.

This book should be read by every parent worthy of the name, and should certainly find a place on the library shelves of all institutions engaged in training nursery nurses, teachers or indeed of anyone who may be responsible for the difficult task of guiding a child in its first steps along the path of life.

J. Halford

**Growing Up in New Guinea.** By Margaret Mead. (Routledge, 12s. 6d.)

Dr. Mead's second local study of adolescence (among the Manus people, Admiralty Island, Bismarck Archipelago, north-east of New Guinea) may prove a valuable contribution to our Euro-American theories of education. All humanity, Dr. Mead rightly feels, is to be benefited by anthropology, not merely the science of anthropology itself. Dr. Mead is beginning to bridge the gaps between psychologists, educationists and anthropologists, and this is very valuable work. In *Growing Up in New Guinea* we are shown a very dramatic picture of untrammelled childhood as a preparation for a very trammelled adulthood; we see the pattern of thought, play-activity and emotion, which prevails until the child is man or woman enough to marry; and then we are given a grim glance at the type of social life to which he or she must thereafter rigidly conform. Adult life among the Manus seems to be singularly devoid of alleviating features; a stringently commercial and puritanical social system exists, which



## EDUCATION IN A CHANGING EMPIRE

REPORT OF  
THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH EDUCATION  
CONFERENCE, JULY, 1931.

*Edited by* WYATT RAWSON.

It contains besides full reports of those addresses already summarized in the *New Era* many papers including the following:—

**M. CHANING PEARCE:**

Education for World Citizenship

**A. YUSUF ALI:**

India in a Changing Commonwealth

**DR. MICHAEL WEST:**

English Teaching and Bilingualism

**DR. G. G. CILLIE:**

Rural Education in South Africa

**MRS. MacGREGOR ROSS:**

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## The Elements of Biology

By C. Von Wyss

“A clear, excellent book.”—*Times Educational Supplement*.

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PART I. LIVING CREATURES IN THE  
SEASONS OF THE YEAR. 2 6

## The Approach to Economics

By H. M. Scott

“As a classroom text-book, Miss Scott’s  
‘Approach’ deserves serious considera-  
tion.”—*New Statesman*.

3 6

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even the newly-grown adult dare not shirk, sanctioned as it is in every particular by the all-powerful spirits of the lately-dead. The transition between the child's status as never-to-be-gainsaid autocrat, and the adult's status of heavy economic and moral responsibility, Dr. Mead shows to be extremely hard.

The only criticism which a humble student can suggest is that a more detailed and scientific presentation would render Dr. Mead's facts available to a wider range of scientists and idealists in the fields of education, psychology, imperialism, eugenics, etc., etc.

*Mariel Russell*

**The African Child.** By Evelyn Sharp. (Longmans & Weardale Press. 2s. 6d.)

Africa of the past centuries has attracted the adventurous traveller, Africa of the present is in danger from the sudden shock of a culture which she does not control. 'The field of exploration of the future is the mind of the African', Lord Lugard reminds us. In Evelyn Sharp's admirable survey of the Conference on the African Child, held last June in Geneva, we have put before us some of the problems of infant mortality, education and child labour, discussed by men and women, European and African, who were there to face the facts and focus public opinion on the future of Africa and the responsibility of those who hold its fate in their hands.

Following on the valuable introduction by Lord Lugard, Miss Sharp gives us a picture of the background of the Conference—the value of the papers written by expert men and women, and circulated to all the delegates beforehand, the amazing variety of the people collected there, Government officials, missionaries both Protestant and Roman Catholic, anthropologists, African political leaders, and many others interested in African problems. Then on to 'Why do African children die?' A sad story indeed, with infant mortality rising as high as 900 per 1,000, in places where normal family life has been broken down by a careless industrialization. Poverty, landlessness, ignorance, superstition, lack of scientific knowledge all play their part in the suffering of mother and child.

'The African Child at School' gives a fascinating description of what was a session full of encouragement to the believer in the 'New Education.' The great experiment at Achimota College, Gold Coast, the need (and demand from African men—oh, shades of our grandfathers, please note!) for the better education of girls, the difficulties met with by educated Africans in South Africa, owing to the colour-bar legislation, the need for imagination, sympathy and anthropological knowledge in the European educators, a plea for the encouragement of native music, art and dancing—such were some of the points dealt with.

Another chapter describes the need for watchful-

ness to protect African children from the evils attendant on industrialization; and the last chapter looks into the future—the work which the organizers of the Conference (the Save the Children Fund and International Union) can do to carry out the conclusions unanimously passed by the Conference at its final session. This statement is given in Appendix 5, and is worthy of close study.

The book should be read by all who are interested in Africa, and will be a real inspiration to those who believe that the future of Africa can best be served by the co-operation of all those, of whatever race or creed or profession, who wish her well.

If a second impression of the book be issued, it is to be hoped that the lists of names in Appendices II and IV will be corrected, as there are many omissions.

*Isabel Ross*

**God and the Little Child.** By Elsie L. Spalding. (N.S.S.U. 2s. 6d.)

Books of this type are still too few in number, and this one will be widely welcomed by parents and teachers. It is based on the practical experience of the writer in approaching the religious education of her three-year-old son. Having moved far away in her own thinking from much of the religious teaching, which she herself received, she found great difficulty in approaching the subject with her child. This book contains some of the results of her thinking and experience.

Part One states the problem and suggests that religious teaching should begin with Jesus, rather than God, and that Jesus' thought of God as Father should be the centre of our explicit teaching and implicit in the relationships and atmosphere of the home. Part Two contains many practical suggestions of real value for parents. These include suggestions regarding the use of the Bible, how prayer may be made real, the use of pictures, stories, music and handwork, etc. The closing section contains stories of Jesus adapted for use with young children.

*J. W. D. Smith*

**How Schools can Help to Preserve the Countryside.** (Council for the Preservation of Rural England. 2d.)

This excellent pamphlet is arousing the interest of Education Authorities, and should be read by teachers in schools of every grade. Teaching on the lines it suggests should help to save the countryside by training children to value the natural and architectural beauties which we are in danger of losing, and also to discriminate between new features which disfigure the rural landscape and those which form worthy additions to it.

It is well worth while to secure that older children shall, in the words of this pamphlet, 'possess sufficient elementary knowledge to be able roughly to distinguish good buildings from bad.'

*D. C. Lee*



# THE NEW ERA

## IN HOME AND SCHOOL

---

### *Outlook Tower*

‘THE world is so full of a number of things,  
I’m sure we should all be as happy as  
kings.’

But are we? The world is full of everything man can want and yet on every side we see a chaotic and menacing condition of affairs.

In politics, despite the League, Treaties, Covenants, Pacts, we are confronted with a world armed to the teeth, armed with new and scientific means of devastating not only belligerents but the whole civilian population. Nationalism of the worst kind is writ large in every quarter of the globe.

In economics Bedlam reigns. Plenty of food and millions starving. Plenty that needs doing and millions unemployed. Nationalistic industrial competition threatens the peace of the world. Hagglng continues over Reparations and War Debts, regardless of the now self-evident truth that ‘prosperity in any one country is a gain to all the rest’. A few great men and women in every country, transcending a purely nationalistic outlook, have realized the needs of the new world, born as a result of nineteenth century science—a world which is a unit and which has outgrown the old methods of government. Hitherto these pioneers have been crying in the wilderness. Greed, fear, rampant nationalism, lack of vision, have prevented their having a sufficient following. Now we are being forced through stark, sheer, practical necessity to put our house in order. Experts in various fields will meet internationally during 1932 to work out plans for a new world machinery. They will treat of questions such as disarmament, and economics from an international angle.

One of the keynotes of the new era is democracy. Democracy is government by public opinion and public opinion is based

upon the opinion of the individual. There is no chance of any world machinery, however good, being put into active and effective operation unless there is in every country a sufficient number of individuals who are ready and willing to stand for the new order of things. Evolution is a slow process. We cannot expect that this new world machinery will be adequately set up in 1932. In the meantime, a new generation of citizens, destined to be the brains and hearts behind the machinery, is growing up. Upon the type of education they receive in these years will depend the success or non-success of the plans laid down by the experts. The peace of the world, nay more, the salvaging of civilization lies in the hands of educators.

There are those who think that the world is entering a new dark age. Rather would we think that we are witnessing a supreme struggle between an outworn nationalistic habit of mind and the fresh, insistent demands of the new world spirit. Shall all the scientific discoveries of the age be used for destructive purposes, or shall they, as the tools of enlightened man, be used to usher in a new era of prosperity and happiness for mankind? It is a supreme challenge to educators—educators used in a large sense, parents, teachers, social workers. What are we doing about it? True, there is much talk of educational reconstruction but it is still piecemeal and education is as much in need of drastic and constructive overhauling as are the economic or monetary systems of the world.

We are educating without giving any fundamental thought to the type of individual we desire to be the outcome of our education. We have not thought out what is really required of the new type of citizen the world needs.



Professor Clarke points out that all action must have its source in the world of ideas. This is a basic truth. Much of the chaos in the world to-day is due to faulty and superficial thinking. The process of training in thought is an educational one. At present all over the world children are being taught to think nationally. There are those who speak of training children to think internationally, but is it possible to skip a whole cycle of experience? Education surely must recapitulate racial experience. Psychologists more and more tend to show that unless a child is successfully rooted in a harmonious family soil he is likely to be maladjusted. Will not an individual who is not rooted harmoniously in a national soil be also maladjusted? Nationalism has for long been a great ideal, calling forth heroism, duty, self-sacrifice, and while it is only too true that much else of a lower character has been introduced into training patriots, nevertheless is it wise to attack it directly? Rather could we not make use of this force but change its character and objective?

To quote Wickham Steed, 'We have got to work with facts as they are. Nationalism may be right or wrong, but so long as people—and peoples—are ready to fight and die for it, it is a real and a very awkward fact. The great question for the world to-day is whether these peoples will detect, or can be taught to detect, the "unseen assassins" that lie in wait for their half-baked notions about nationalism before . . . the assassins have done their fell work. To my mind, the best way of getting rid of assassins is not to strike at the strongest point of their position, which is built up of love of country, loyalty, and the spirit of self-sacrifice—not to mention the dislike and contempt of other peoples and pride in their own—but to put forward, to preach, and to practise a better sort of nationalism, a higher form of national pride.

'The world is trembling on the threshold of what may be either an era of vast destruction, or an era of glorious pulling together for the common good of its peoples. Poor though their skill in thought may be, some of these peoples have enough of it to begin vaguely to see that if they do not hang together they may all hang separately. They are groping their way towards a new sort of law. They feel the need of

"common law" for a community that includes others beside themselves. Call them to be foremost in service to this new law, to help in building it up, to be the first willingly to obey its precepts, and they may find the prospect more attractive than those of the silly old game of biting and tearing each other. It is, as Sir Norman Angell says. . . . really a contest between the spirit of partnership and the spirit of mastery.

'But every partner must first be a nation. If a nation can be got to feel that honour and interest alike demand that it should put its wealth, its brains and its devotion into the new firm so that it as well as the other partners may profit exceedingly, its nationalism will take on quite another line. The whole thing comes down to this: What do we mean by "nationalism"?' (from the *Observer*, 10th January, 1932).

There is much for educators to do, in revising textbooks, in introducing into the content of education and into the curriculum itself studies of a nature to make the child realize the essential oneness of the universe and all its activities. It is worth while to teach about the League of Nations, worth while to encourage travel, correspondence between children of different lands and all else that will make for world-mindedness. We must however be guarded against too much direct influence, for human nature has a knack of being satiated by an overdose and reacting in the exact inverse direction. Rather would it be wise to use the indirect method, to realize that world-mindedness is not an artificial thing any more than is an appreciation of beauty or a real religious sense. It cannot be imposed from without. It must be an inner growth. So we must turn to the laws of growth, to the laws of learning and realize that the task of the educator is to provide three things: the soil or environment, material for growth or stimuli; and above all air—an intangible, immeasurable atmosphere which imbues and permeates.

The educator himself must first be imbued so that his very presence in a class or school community is contagious. We cannot hope to wave a wand and change all educators. They too are human. They too have been born and bred in an age when the wrong type of nationalism was taught, not only in the schools but in many



another way in the community at large. But a change in thought and philosophy must be a slow, evolutionary process. What we can hope is that a sufficient number of teachers, parents and social workers will be inspired to come together in a movement, realizing that only through education and by fellowship can we ourselves hope to fight on the side of the forces for good. It is worth while for anyone in contact with children to review their own thoughts and feelings and actions and reactions. It is worth while for teachers in a school to come together and review the whole school procedure, not necessarily only the instruction side but the general life of the school community. It is worth while for parents to review the home circle, the newspapers they take, their conversation at meals, their relationships in business, in friendships, in neighbourliness. It would be worth while for hundreds or thousands of people to come together in what H. G. Wells called 'an open conspiracy'. There might be a growing force in the world of thought, people linked together by a few principles only, forgetting for the nonce their sectarian, political and national prejudices, and coming together as people bound by a common ideal and for a common cause.

The laws of learning show that there is only one way to learn—through experience. And therefore this band of conspirators would be united by one aim, to set up conditions in home and school and society in which the new generation could find opportunities of practising the human qualities required for the type of human relationship which alone can create a new order. A child is not born competitive or intolerant. Competitiveness, intolerance, are developed through his environment and education. We have sufficient faith in the spiritual origin of man to believe that within every child are many potencies. The environment deter-

mines which of these shall be released. It is not however sufficient to release a force; training is also necessary. For instance, if co-operative instead of competitive force be called forth, the right use of that force depends upon training.

Again, is not fear one of the basic factors of our world difficulties to-day? It has its rise in insecurity, in a sense of inferiority. The new psychology has much help to give in eradicating fear in education, by giving a child the right sense of security and social adjustment. Discipline must be based on the principles that the League of Nations is trying to further; not coercion, not punishment, not imposition, not exploitation, but rather the coming together of self-disciplined nations able to see and seek the welfare of the world as a whole. But before we can expect national self-discipline we must obtain individual self-discipline.

Many other examples could be used of the principles that are likely to be required for the harmonious working of the new machinery that is being planned, but what we have got to realize is that national feeling and thinking is but a reflection of the sum total of individual feeling and thinking, and that therefore the key of the situation lies in social change through the right education of individuals.

Our Fellowship since 1915 has steadily had this end in view. In all our different sections and groups throughout the world we are trying to work out the details of the principles of the Fellowship and their application in education. But since 1915 rapid changes have made it necessary to expand our philosophy and to put forward a programme of action. Then we were only dimly groping for terms in which to formulate the spiritual basis of the New Education. Now we hope to secure at Nice a fundamental formulation of a philosophy of life that can link the diverse peoples together in a common programme of action.



# The Key to To-morrow—I

## The Reconstruction of Discipline

F. CLARKE

THE movement towards criticism and re-synthesis of current concepts of education gathers strength to such a degree that a point is now being reached where it will be possible to discern both the main axis of the movement and the forces by which it is determined. Desultory and disjointed discussion may be expected, before long, to yield place to genuine attempts at a new synthesis, adequate for the needs of the new age. Organized co-operative effort will be necessary if the crystallizing process is to be kept large enough in scope and sufficiently cleansed by many converging streams of criticism. To mention only one point, unless the range of discourse is very much wider than that which is set by the needs of any particular nation (or even Continent), and unless criticism is sufficiently strong and enlightened to purge the thinking of the sediments of an out-worn nationalism, no satisfactory crystallization can take place.

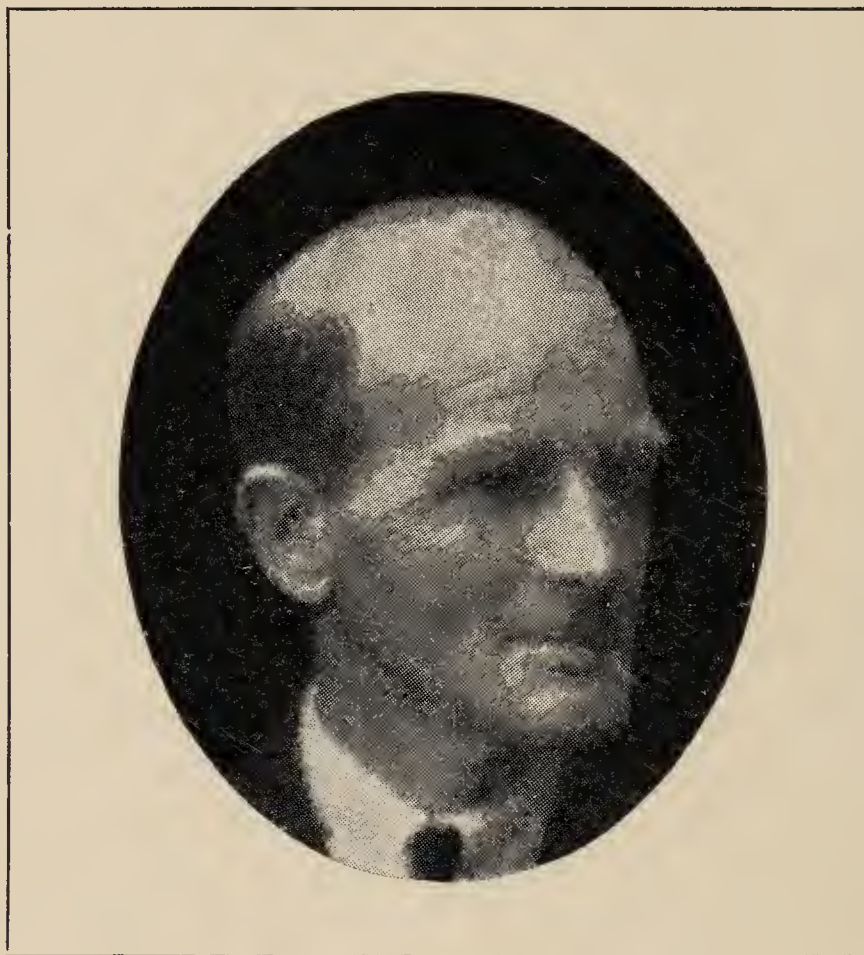
The New Education Fellowship is an organization that is well fitted to provide a nucleating centre, and the forthcoming Conference at Nice should make possible a thorough preliminary analysis of the elements which must enter into the new synthesis.

But though co-operative effort, spread over many years and engaging many diverse minds, is essential for achieving the objective, preliminary statements from individual points of

view are also necessary. For it is out of such tentative efforts, undertaken by many individuals, each from his own standpoint, that the larger and wider synthesis will emerge.

The present writer takes the view that the right focal point for all our discussion is that which is expressed in the title to this article.

We seek to define an objective for education in terms of the present need, not of our nation or people alone, but of all mankind. I should be content to define it in terms of freedom were I not convinced that the word would be misunderstood. Indeed, such misunderstandings are at the root of most of our troubles. 'Freedom' and 'Discipline' must be defined, ultimately, in terms that are identical, I agree. But I am concerned here with the question of *emphasis*, and



it is wiser and more urgent to begin with discipline and interpret in terms of freedom than to take the reverse order. The very fact that the term discipline has a negative ring for so many of our 'progressive' educationists only shows how necessary it is to begin the clarifying process from that end. We have talked so much of growth that we have forgotten that education is necessarily a discipline. Rousseau, the father of all our modern thought, never forgot it. Indeed his whole effort was to find a rational vindication of discipline. Both his critics and his disciples tend to forget this, in concentrating upon the



less significant side of his teaching.

Little more than a glance at the modern world is needed in order to realize how urgent a new disciplinary interpretation of education has become.

Lawlessness is, everywhere, its distinguishing characteristic, and reaction against partial and interested attempts at discipline only deepens confusion. They do for the moral life of man what tariffs do for his economic life, attempting to cure an impeded metabolism by strangulation.

When lawlessness—a real *anomia* of mind and spirit—is as rife as it is to-day, there must be some deep-seated cause. That cause should not be hard to find. The phenomenon is a witness both to decay and to growth. To decay of an old order first—of institutional and credal controls which no longer correspond to genuinely felt needs. On the positive side it is an expression of new creative impulses born of the new possibilities. At a stage when the institutional forms that could provide the needed new disciplines have not yet emerged.

Such new forms spring, doubtless, from the experimentation of creative individuals. But they are established and set functioning only by a discipline of the mass. An education that sets out to achieve its end in the hope that all men can be made equally creative is deceiving itself, and heading for general disaster. For all men in some degree, and for the mass of men in large degree, creative activities are set in the wider discipline of institutional control. No man can rebel against everything at once, and no man can live unto himself. The most revolutionary genius is obeying rather than rebelling for most of his time, and his creations are, in large measure, the flowering of that obedience.

For the mass of men this is even more true, and disaster awaits us if we forget it. Conduct of the sex-life affords an illustration. Through the ages that has proceeded under institutional control. Now experiment is possible and is proceeding. For strong and truly creative spirits who have succeeded in transcending the seeming conflict of discipline and freedom, this may mean entry into a larger freedom. They will be more, not less human; more and not less spacious and moral in their lives.

But the majority, who have not so transcended the conflict involved, may simply surrender to license and reel back into the beast. The danger is no imaginary one, and a little observation of contemporary life and politics shows that it has parallels in other fields. Indeed the ferment of indiscipline of which we are speaking may very well be regarded as expressing itself in at least three major anarchies of our time. There is the anarchy of international relationships arising from the incapacity of an old doctrine of national sovereignty to meet the needs of a much-changed world. There is the anarchy of what is loosely called 'Capitalism', arising from inadequacy of old controls to govern new powers. And there is lastly, and most fundamental, the moral anarchy itself, both a cause and an effect of the other two.

No League of Nations on a purely legalistic plane; no neatly designed substitute for the economic machine, can ever do what is needed. New institutional growths can be only the outcome of *ideas*, resolving the moral anarchy within and building for themselves a new institutional vesture without. What a truism! And yet how strangely neglected by those who would nevertheless admit that a process by which we change ideas is a process of education!

Here it should be noted that we mean by lawlessness not mere non-conformity, mere disorder. We mean rather a real de-throning of inner moral authority, an attitude towards new ideas that interprets them as meaning not new kinds of control but release from any kind of control. For instance the frequency with which one hears, on the American continent, the expression: 'Getting away with it', is most sinister, and suggests irresistibly a real anarchy within.

We can now see more clearly what the task of educational thought and practice is to be, and why it is increasingly felt that the time is coming when education must achieve an autonomous philosophy of its own. The search must be for *standards* and for means of applying them. It is equally clear that no standards will serve which are out of accord with the real movement of men's minds. They must be standards which can carry consent by persuasion rather than by force, and this means that



they must be rooted in a discipline of ideas rather than of mere habit. There is no sign of a world Imperium of the Roman type, no sign of a World Church, no sign, in short, of a world order that can rest on any authority of an external kind. Those days are past, and the history of the last generation is itself sufficient to emphasize the completeness of their passing.

But men must have standards to live by and they will accept uncritical short-view standards of expediency and appetite, if they are not disciplined into critical acceptance of long-view standards of principle and insight. When the old gods fade the demons get their chance, and the escaping Prometheus is all too apt to find himself an enslaved Caliban. The demons are active enough now. Sheer Bigness; 'Success' (in a gross material sense); Academic Labels; Blind Self-Indulgence; 'Getting Away With It', these are the names of some of them. A century-and-a-half of science and emancipation has done its work and the dethroned gods must contemplate the present scene of their former reign with a certain grim satisfaction.

Discipline, then, is the need; a discipline of *ideas*, whose service shall be perfect freedom. The body of ideas that the discipline must use derives from two sources. First from a Science of Man, largely a biological and physiological science that is still being worked out. From this we may derive a norm of growth which will itself serve as a standard.

Secondly from a Philosophy of Society which will be something much more than a legalistic vindication of national sovereignty. The main lines of it are already beginning to appear and as it grows it will afford the rational basis for that *lex gentium* that will bring into world society the constitutionalism to which we have become accustomed in individual societies. Then the law of reasonable standards within will have its proper complement and support in reasonable institutions without.

Thus I contemplate a re-stated concept of education which, while it will lay much stress upon free and healthy individual growth, upon reconstructed schoolrooms and a reorganized school life, and upon richer and more vital contacts between life and school, will, above all these things, emphasize the organization and vitalization of a body of *ideas*. Questions of

curriculum and of teaching method must occupy a central place in the whole discussion that lies before us. For it is the re-making of man's *mind* with which we are pre-eminently concerned. Language, history and science will constitute the core of studies, as always. But there must be some re-distribution of emphasis and a very thorough de-formalizing and re-interpretation of content over the whole field. This is especially true of history, the most valuable of disciplines for the free man. What ought to be an exciting and inspiring revelation of the real significance of the individual life becomes too often either a pattern-weaving of dead book-stuff or a focus of distorted patriotisms.

Re-interpretation of the content of studies and the working out of educational procedures in the appropriate forms of disciplined freedom are infinitely more important than the construction of elaborate techniques and authoritative 'scientific methods'. The cult of technique apart from substance is a growing danger, threatening us with the tyranny of a new orthodoxy in the name of science itself. What we need is not less of science and the scientific spirit in solving our problems of technique, but a more just estimate of its limitations and the capacity that a sound philosophy can give to keep science to its proper ancillary function.

The emphasis must be, throughout, on the plastic organization of living ideas. Self-government, free discipline, individual creativeness, and all the other features of modern methods are not values in themselves. We are in some danger here of falling into the old errors of formal discipline. Because pupils have been exercised in team-work at school, we are apt to assume too readily that a general capacity for team-work will carry over automatically into life. But only *ideas* are vehicles of transfer; only with the appropriate equipment of living *ideas* can the individual function co-operatively in a group. If team-work generates a positive and active *idea* of co-operation; if, further, it is used in history, science, language and the rest, to build up solid structures of ideas with all their life significance clear and strong upon them, then there will be substance for spirit to inform and we can say: '*Abeunt studia in mores*'. Cases are not unknown of



schools which imagine that the use of modern methods is itself the end, as though freedom and discipline and co-operation were achieved merely by going through the motions. Apparently the English Public Schools are discovering the truth and their adhesion to the old doctrine of formal disciplines is sensibly weakening. They, too, must realize that only ideas can rule such a world as this and that what is called character requires something more than institutional rituals for its formation. Even in army training the shift of emphasis from drill to real education in ideas is significant.

Lastly, let us not be frightened if, in the exploration of the task that is imposed upon us, we find that to be critics of education we must be critics of society too. Like Socrates we must follow the argument wherever it leads or our claim to autonomy is meaningless. All reconstruction must be, in part, revolutionary, especially a reconstruction of discipline. But it is revolutionary only because it cannot possibly be dogmatic. The closed mind of the dogmatist is to be found rather among those who are revolutionary by profession, denouncing every change except the one change they want. For us the attitude must be a calmer and more liberal one; let changes come, whatever they may be, provided their effect is to give freer course to healing and disciplinary ideas.

The dialectic of human progress continues, with its ceaseless rhythm of oscillation, back and forth between the romantic and the classical; between the compelling impulses of free creative growth, and the equally compelling necessities of ordered discipline. A swing towards discipline must, apparently, be the next phase. But it will be discipline of a subtler kind and on a far vaster scale than any of the disciplines of the past. Now and again, and here and there, small groups of men have, if only momentarily, achieved the ideal of a disciplined Good Life which is at the same time the life of freedom. Never before have we contemplated such a discipline of men in the mass. Very probably the majority of men will still need that the emancipating yet controlling ideas shall come to them in religious form.

A general world-wide discipline pre-supposes a faith and it may be only a minority who can grasp the faith in the sublimated form of a rational philosophy. Even for them it may have something of a religious sanction. For the mass the religious form may be the only one in which the saving ideas can operate at once creatively and authoritatively. If so, this does but emphasize the momentousness of the task upon which we are entering, just as it may throw some much needed light upon the form in which that task must be conceived.

## *Educational Exploitation of Errors\**

BENJAMIN C. GRUENBERG

TO err is said to be human. To forgive and forget, to let bygones be bygones, is rated a stage or two higher. How shall we scale the capture and utilization of errors?

Obviously errors may be exploited in at least two radically different ways. We may take advantage of the mistakes that other people make, to their undoing and to our gain; that, too, is more or less human. Or we may use the blunders for what we may call an 'educational' end, to nobody's hurt; and that is at least not inhuman.

\* Reprinted from *Educational Method*. October, 1931.

The ability to learn, which is one of the outstanding traits of the species, rests directly upon the ability to make mistakes. The committing of errors of various kinds is therefore a normal part of the child's life. In the classroom, whether we are concerned with the acquisition of skills or with the acquisition of knowledge, we must expect errors, inaccuracies, blunders, misunderstandings, as a matter of course. Patience and humour, which are so highly praised as valuable in the make up of a teacher, are important because they play a rôle in the teacher's reaction to these normal deviations from ideal or perfect responses.



It is easy enough to manifest humour and patience in the presence of blunders that do not affect us immediately. This is no doubt due in part at least to a certain emotional effect upon the ego: other people's mistakes, at the moment they are recognized as such, necessarily exalt our feeling of superiority. The situation created by blunders is radically different if they come from our own students or our own children. In such cases we have to share some of the implied stupidity or ignominy. Within the confines of the classroom, for example, we usually maintain the attitude expressed by the reproach, 'You didn't understand what I said'. In the secret chambers of the soul we assume the attitude expressed by the apology, 'I did not make clear to you what I meant'. Naturally, we resent being placed in the more humble position, and we shift to the other the blame for the blunder, rather than accept it as a reproach to our own technical incompetence.

It would seem desirable to get those in the position of teaching others to rid themselves, so far as possible, of the tendency to resent the impeachment inherent in the learners' blunders, and that without cultivating indifference to the outcome of their efforts. To the end of obtaining such objectivity toward blunders it may be of help to attempt an analysis of certain types of blunders, in search of their sources and their significance from the point of view of the erring ones.

The material used consists of published collections of 'Howlers', as they are called in England, and of similar 'gems' kindly furnished by some eighty-odd teachers in this country, for a collection published under the title, *Boners*.\*

Several hundred of these blunders were classified according to the apparent source of the error, into seven main groups, which may be roughly designated as follows: (1) similarity of words; (2) false inferences; (3) crossed wires; (4) divergent backgrounds; (5) literal-mindedness; (6) rhetorical difficulties; (7) neuroses and mixed motives.

## I

One is rather astonished to find reported relatively few blunders arising from words of double meaning, although there are some. For

example, in reply to the question, 'What three animals are peculiar to the frigid zone?' came the reply, 'The lion, giraffe, and elephant would be peculiar in the frigid zone.' The pupil was sufficiently well informed on his geography and his faunistics; but *peculiar* meant to him and to his teacher two different things.

By far the most frequent blunders, and the most easily comprehended, arise from the similarity of words having different meanings. The boy who defined 'senator' as a being half man and half horse was not indulging in cynical reflections upon our political institutions and personalities; he was an English boy who had been taught his classical mythology. Things learned early often present passive obstacles to what is taught later. Some examples of these resistances to new words and concepts will illustrate the process:

Acrimony, sometimes called holy, is another name for marriage.

Barbarians are things put into bicycle wheels to make them run smoothly.

Sometimes strange and outlandish words impress because of their difficulty and are seized upon so avidly that they fairly bristle their hostility against potential intruders:

A Soviet is a cloth used by waiters in hotels.

A mosquito is a child of black and white parents.

The 'menagerie lion running around the earth' has become a classic example of a childish substitution of familiar words for strange ones, without apparent interference with the cortical processes supposed to be the concomitants of 'thinking'. There are hundreds of examples of fearful and wonderful transformations undergone by phrases out of songs and hymns during their passage from the ear of a child to the mouth: 'We can sing full though we be' is not the vainglorious boast of football celebrators, but a simple and sincere rendering of 'Weak and sinful though we be' as heard in a Sunday school.

Similarities in the *appearance* of words present difficulties to inexperienced readers. Inasmuch as the pupil is commonly left to himself in his struggle with the printed page, the teacher is more likely to blame him for getting things 'wrong' and to attribute his blunders to 'carelessness'. Whether or not improved techniques in teaching children to read will dry up the

\* The Viking Press. \$1.00.



source of these blunders we cannot foretell, but it should be helpful to parents as well as to teachers to know that the imps of confusion lurk behind every infrequent syllable. With that in mind we can perhaps understand this type of blunder:

Ali Baba means being away when the crime was committed.

In the days of Joseph the Egyptians gave refuse to the Israelites.

## II

A second class of errors arises from the teaching tradition which makes it appear better policy, on the part of the pupil, to hazard a guess than to say simply and honestly, 'I don't know'. Among the examples given, there may be some that represent the pupil unaware of his ignorance; in any case the mental process seems to be that of deductive inference, and logical enough even if the conclusions are 'false'. To supply 'spice' as the plural of 'spouse' may count as an error, but it is in harmony with the spirit of Anglo-Saxon tradition, especially as this is in the process of being absorbed by a child of foreign parentage. Three groups of examples are offered.

The first has to do with direct inference from the context or from common knowledge:

Grit is given to fowls to make them heavy so they can't fly away.

A grass widow is the wife of a dead vegetarian.

The formation of diminutives, feminine endings, and other verbal modifications supply a second group:

The diminutive of man is mankind.

A buttress is a woman who makes butter.

Inferences based upon etymology range from the obvious, if false, to the far-fetched, if plausible:

The *coroner* is the man who crowns the king.

An *anglophile* is one who loves fishing.

Sepulchre: 'se' negative; 'pulcher' fair; a place where beauty fades.

## III

I have designated as crossed wires those cases that indicate a body of ideas associated with a word or phrase, which is, however, easily detached and shunted off to a different body with which there is no direct relation. It is an

extension of the confusion of terms to the point of inferring or elaborating connotations. It is impressive to note, for example, how frequently Joan of Arc is set up in relation to Noah, both in this country and in England; or how frequently the expression 'Papal Bull' brings a cow into the picture.

If you have any vacancies go at once to the dentist.

The Mediterranean and the Red Sea are connected by the sewage canal.

Some children seem to have a genius for jumping off the track, not at each switch, but at the end of each rail:

Esau was a man who wrote fables and sold his copyright for a mess of potash.

From such cases we may ourselves infer why it is that teachers sometimes say to the pupils, 'Don't think!' And we know what they mean.

## IV

The influence of previous experience as it determines the 'apperceptive' basis for further learning is commonly recognized, but is usually disregarded in teaching except where teachers take pains to 'prepare' for specific instruction. The disregarded background, however, is far from inert, and sometimes asserts itself in ways that are startling or amusing.

The prevailing customs of a community or neighbourhood, or the common concerns, emerge in the two definitions of *lockout* from different parts of London:

A lockout is a man who comes home too late.

A lockout is like a strike, only it lasts longer.

## V

Until he has been repeatedly thwarted by minds that are wholly literal, the teacher does not ordinarily realize the extent to which all of our language is figurative. Even in teaching history and sciences, where we are ostensibly concerned with 'facts', we are creating difficulties for our pupils because we mean more than our words say, or something different. The definition of 'transparent', for instance, as 'something you can look through', would ordinarily pass muster; but when the teacher calls for an example, the pupil submits: 'like a key-hole'. What is one to do then?

In reply to the examination question, 'How would you make soft water hard?' came the



advice, 'Freeze it'. The teacher may say, truthfully enough, that the pupil failed to learn the special meanings of the words 'hard' and 'soft' as applied to water; but the school trustee might also say that the teacher had failed to get the idea across before proceeding on the assumption that the pupil did know those technical meanings. In reply to the question, 'Why does true English history begin with Henry VII?' came the matter-of-fact statement, 'Because up to this time it was all lies.'

A few more examples of this stark facing of realities may help to reveal the processes involved:

Out of sight out of mind means, invisible and insane.

The Minister of War is the clergyman who preaches to the soldiers in the barracks.

The mechanical advantage of a long pump handle is that you can get somebody to help you pump.

Certainly it cannot be said that the literal-minded lack imagination; they merely miss what the other person's imagination intended. Paraphrasing 'O God of Battles, steel my soldiers' hearts, and possess them not with fear', yielded 'O Mars, rob my soldiers of their hearts, and don't be afraid to keep them.' Nor is literal-mindedness a simple matter of *level* of intelligence, as the annoyed teacher is likely to assume.

## VI

A large group of blunders arises because the pupil knows what he means but cannot express himself adequately. To say that a teacher, to be popular with his pupils, 'must be fair inside and out' certainly suggests a variety of ideas; but there is nothing the matter with the pupil's meaning, nor when he says of algebraic symbols that they 'are used when you don't know what you are talking about'.

Teachers should by all means do what they can to improve the pupil's skill in expression, but such errors should arouse neither ridicule nor reproach. In the following examples we have to recognize a certain ingenuity and resourcefulness in meeting language difficulties:

A widow is a wife without a man.

Rhubarb is a kind of celery gone bloodshot.

An axiom is a thing that is so visible that it is not necessary to see it.

## VII

In the examples that have been designated as 'crossed wires', we find some that call for a considerable amount of analysis. It often happens, however, that a pupil writes a sentence or a series of seemingly unrelated sentences that try the teacher's patience because they are not relieved by humour. In such cases those who have to read examination papers written by strangers, where the personal identification with the pupils' failure is eliminated, are annoyed because they cannot make any sense out of the writing; the work is crazy, or at least we are unable to understand what the writer had in mind. There is apparently at work some source of confusion, or each of a series of words diverts the train of thought into new channels, destroying the unity of the total reaction. One student, for example, enumerates the principal parts of the eye as 'the pupil, the moat, and the beam'. We can forgive him the misspelling of mote, for we have no difficulty in tracing his associations. If he had been turned aside by the appearance of the word 'moat' on his paper, and passed on to drawbridge and portcullis, we should have suspected his intelligence or his sanity; but the mechanism is of precisely the same nature even if it does not carry one so far.

The fusing of two ideas because their names have elements in common is just what we mean when we speak of confusion:

Many ships used Calcutta as a coaling station; hence the term, 'Black Hole of Calcutta'.

The opposite effect results when a term suggests two (or perhaps more) discrete or incompatible ideas. 'When Achilles was born his mother plunged him into the Styx'; so far, the historic truth, as learned, with but a slight verbal error; but note what happens next: 'and that made him intolerable'.

The crazy writing is probably analogous in many cases to the 'artificial neuroses' produced in Pavlov's laboratory. When a dog has been thoroughly conditioned to respond in a definite way to stimulus A, and in a totally different way to stimulus B, what happens upon the simultaneous presentation of both stimuli, or upon the presentation of the two in rapid alternation? The dog barks or whines and shows other signs



of distress. The reaction of a human being under analogous conditions is described as 'panic' or 'confused', or, in extreme cases, 'crazy'.

From the educational point of view it is a commonplace that the teacher should analyse pupils' blunders, for the purpose of discovering his own shortcomings as well as the students'. In practice it is often difficult to do this precisely because the manifestations of our own shortcomings tend to destroy our objectivity. For these reasons teachers are likely to find very helpful, as well as entertaining, a study of the

blunders made by other teachers' pupils. Such a study may do more, however, than reveal the sources of particular errors and point to a prevention of their repetition. It may enable us to meet blunders without reproach and so liberate the children, and others with whom we have to deal, from the constant fear and self-deprecation which reproach always induces, where it does not evoke defiance. We may thus learn, indeed, that it is possible to be as serious as our calling and our responsibilities demand, without being solemn.

## The Global Method in the Teaching of Reading and Writing

A. HAMAÏDE

DR. Decroly's numerous works on the principle of Globalization are well known.\* Our experiences at the Ermitage School during the last four years have confirmed his theories. It is possible to teach children to read by the methods a mother uses in teaching her child to talk. And we can vouch that by following this natural method we can enable the child to learn to read without going through any systematic drill, and without having learnt either letters or syllables. The pace at which each child learns to read will vary according to his natural aptitudes, as does the pace at which he learns to speak.

The importance of Dr. Decroly's discovery is obvious. Thanks to his method, we no longer break up words into meaningless sounds; we have abolished the study of sounds divorced from sense, and all systematization on the lines of the A.B.C. We follow the natural road both for the learner and the teacher. Reading thus becomes what it should be, first, an exercise in expression—one such among many—and, in a short space of time, a means of acquiring new knowledge.

Thanks to this method, the child's spirit follows its natural bent, and his spontaneity is no longer fettered. His field of observation is naturally extended and, as its limits are not pre-

determined, all the faculties of the child are able to develop freely and harmoniously. Should not this be the aim of all our teaching methods?

Dr. Decroly's method passes from the concrete to the abstract by a natural transition. The child is offered first objects, then phrases, lastly, words; and he ends up by sorting out the abstract elements. To this end we simply follow the methods used by the mother in teaching her child to talk. What does she do? Does she approach her child with letters, monosyllables, words? Or rather with phrases, ideas? And does not the child learn little by little to express himself?

Why should not this same method be followed in the teaching of reading? Why should one not seek guidance from the linguistic evolution of the little child? Does not he understand the spoken word before he can use it himself? Does he not understand orders—'Come here, get up, give me your hand'—before he can answer 'I'm coming, I'm getting up. I give you my hand'? And if he understands these orders by means of hearing, why should he not understand them by means of sight? The eyes should help him to an even quicker understanding of them than the ears. Only one must repeat things often enough for the visual image to fix itself as firmly as the auditive. We can affirm that written phrases which translate ideas, constitute the most concrete aspect of an idea expressed verbally.

\* *La Fonction de Globalisation et l'Enseignement*. O. Decroly. Lamertin. Brussels.









Christiane, 6 years. After 6 months (one month of absence).

If moreover we consider language and writing, we see that neither the one nor the other *began* from the letter, but from the sound, the written symbol having the value of a phrase.

If we observe the child closely, we shall see that the phrase precedes the word, and that generally the word used by the child has to him the significance of a complete phrase, and often, even, of several. For example, a child who says 'Daddy' means thereby 'Daddy is there' or 'Daddy I love you' or 'Daddy, pick me up.'

And what about the further processes of analysis and generalization? These will come of themselves in their own good time. Thus it is merely a question of furnishing the child with phrases which will represent a *résumé* of what he has observed. He can even furnish the material himself. This interests him and he likes reading; he reads every day and thus acquires quantities of new words each day.

Interest and play should be the main factors in this process, and we see children who succeed in reading fluently without knowing either letters or syllables. The result is, of

course, entirely individual. There is thus properly speaking no *method* but a natural evolution.

A brief account of how we proceed from the start with a child of six years old may be useful.

After having observed the object chosen as the 'centre of interest', for example, fruits, the children sum up their observations verbally. These observations are set down in short phrases—at first in the form of an order.

Each child has his individual material, as well as the book in which the phrases are grouped as they are acquired. These short phrases are always illustrated by the children. They play with them and revise them briefly each day in some fresh and amusing way. Each day a new phrase, always a summing up of some observation, is written down. These phrases gradually become longer and longer.

The child will recognize spontaneously the words that have already been read in foregoing stories. No one word is ever singled out from its context, and the child's attention is never directed to the component parts of a word.



The children easily recognize words they have already seen, and are capable of reading new phrases as they are presented to them. After a certain length of time the following exercise may be given: The children are asked to reconstruct from the words contained in one story another story, which must of course contain the same 'centre of interest'. Or else certain words are rubbed out and the child is asked to come and write them in correctly.

After several months, printed characters are introduced. The transition demands no special instruction. The children soon recognize the visual image of the new printed words. And at this point the children dictate little stories which the rather older children write down for them. From the beginning one should try to get the children to reproduce from memory the phrases presented to them. We show them a phrase for some few seconds and ask the child to reproduce the picture he has retained of it. At the beginning we do not take much notice of mistakes. We stop the exercise after the first attempt. Then little by little, we insist on greater accuracy. If the phrase has not been written correctly, we show them it a second time and the children write it down again. We always stop after the third attempt.

Another plan that has succeeded very well is the following: among the phrases given to the child are: 'Dear Miss X', 'Dear Mother', 'These are the things I can write', 'Love from . . .'. These phrases enable the child to write little letters from the beginning. As a matter of fact, he will write one each day and post it in the class letter-box. 'Dear Miss X, these are the things I can write . . .' and then his whole repertoire. This work amuses and interests him very much and the letter-box is filled every day. This constitutes an excellent exercise for the child, and encourages much repetition.

Also at an early stage, usually towards the sixth week, we ask the children to write what they wish and from the beginning we allow them to refer to any reading books, phrases or notices, that they may have at hand. They make up little stories, and ask us to write on the blackboard any words which they have been unable to find elsewhere. So as to facilitate this work we group together all the words they know, according to sense, and we thus build up a sort of dictionary

in which the child can easily find his way about. Thus from the beginning we show the child the true method of setting to work.

So as to assure ourselves that he understands what he reads, we present him with unknown phrases containing well-known words, and the child makes a drawing of what he has read. This forms an interesting method of control and gives a chance for individual work.

This procedure continues until the child is able to read. The results are often quick, though sometimes slow. That depends upon the individual child. But we can assert that after a full year of such exercises all the children read currently and with understanding.

And how about writing? Just as the child, having heard a spoken language, endeavours to translate his thought orally with greater and greater precision, so, after having seen and understood, he will make use of this language as soon as possible, either through drawing or through writing, his success depending upon the completeness of the global method. From the very first day, the child will copy the first phrase he reads without knowing his letters. He copies the outline of the phrase and very soon comes to write perfectly. Included are some photographs, showing the evolution of writing in a child of five-and-a-half.

As the study of various 'centres of interest' proceeds, the vocabulary furnished to the child is written down in a book which comes to be his dictionary. The child comes to write fluently without having learnt to write his letters, and without having spent long hours in the acquisition of this technique. We thus see that the global method is a simplification in the process of learning to read and write. By this method the child acquires the necessary associations between the verbal image of the word and the phonetic elements of which it is composed, without learning his letters. And if one wishes to apply the method of 'centres of interest' this is the only way of so doing.

As soon as the child can read he finds in his classroom a library into which he can delve during the reading hour. He continues to read to himself and has frequent chances of reading when looking up material for personal work and in preparing his lessons.



# The Kräherwald School

RENÉE ABERDAM

THE Kräherwald School, Stuttgart, is one of the most interesting of the new schools in Germany, because it is a living demonstration of the vital importance of the co-operation of parents in the schooling of their children, and of the possibility of introducing new methods into a State school system without any drastic break with tradition.

The history of the school is unusual. Its founder and headmaster, Friedrich Schieker, was ten years ago a young teacher in one of the junior State schools in Stuttgart. His class of nine-year-olds there became a small and self-reliant community whose ordering depended not upon outward discipline, but upon trust and good fellowship and an individual sense of responsibility. When Herr Schieker was obliged to leave Stuttgart for a week he did not hesitate to entrust the class to his pupils, and the boys took upon themselves the task of maintaining discipline and a good standard of work in the absence of their master. His confidence was justified, and during the whole week the children behaved exactly as they would have done if he had been there.

Such an educationist was bound to attract the attention of the parents. They wished to leave their children under Herr Schieker's influence for a longer time than was permitted by State regulations, instead of sending them on to the secondary schools. In spite of officialdom and red tape, the parents had their way.

Having got so far they immediately set to work on plans for a school building. Herr Schieker himself objected that, in view of the financial depression in Germany, the parents should not be expected to meet the heavy expense of building. In a short time, however,

the necessary sum was raised by subscription. The parents, rich and poor, made their contributions, and those who were unemployed helped in the actual building of the school. The pupils too collaborated.

In 1925 the buildings were completed with the most up-to-date equipment, surrounded by playgrounds and a garden. They are low and white, standing at the edge of the Kräherwald, a wood on one of the hillsides of Stuttgart.

One of the interesting and original features of the school is that it is a day-boarding school,

which enables the children to live together outside of lessons, and so develops social feeling. Thus Germany now possesses a State school which offers all the advantages of a 'Landerziehungsheim'. In certain respects it is even superior to this, for the children are not withdrawn from the influence of their homes, and, unlike

the 'Landerziehungsheim', this school is accessible to children of all classes. Attendance is free, and the cost of meals is borne by the parents according to their ability to pay. At least one-third of the children belong to the working classes, and Herr Schieker is anxious to maintain this proportion. The school numbers 144 children and is co-educational.

To enable the children to pass on to the secondary schools, foreign languages are taught from the beginning of the fifth school year. The teachers have to comply with the official syllabus, but, all the same, creative methods of teaching are applied. Thus, in the first four school years the teaching is based upon rhythmic, music, drawing and plastic work; in the subsequent two years upon imagination and in the last two years upon more intellectual



*A Play-acting Group*



processes, and upon a moral and religious groundwork.

The intellectual standard reached in the entrance examinations to the secondary schools is definitely higher than that achieved by pupils of the more regular state schools. So far, all the children have passed the examination, one-third of them with distinction, and even those who are less intellectually gifted are above the average of their class, because they have been accustomed to demand of themselves real efficiency in their work. These results have been obtained in spite of the fact that Herr Schieker refuses to give any special coaching for the examinations.

After the noise and bustle of the city, the school seems an island of peace and happiness. What strikes one most is its almost solemn calm, in spite of its industry and life. These children work like scientists in their laboratories, like artists in their studios, because their work is individual and creative. This same absorption is seen in their games and their acting. The children live fully in whatever they do, because the school is based entirely on the constructive, creative powers of the child, and its sole aim is to develop what is most profoundly himself in every pupil.

The children act whenever they have a mind to do so. Almost every classroom has a dais and curtains, that can be used as a theatre. When they act, they choose their costumes from the large collection made mostly by themselves or by former pupils. A few of them will form a group, and improvise a play, either producing a

variation of a familiar theme, or inventing quite freely, in which case the result is a real '*Commedia dell'Arte*'. These spontaneous performances are of great value educationally as well as æsthetically. Inhibitions, feelings of inferiority and destructive tendencies are got rid of much more readily and surely by these spontaneous performances than by carefully prepared ones.

These facilities for self-expression and for the free development of constructive powers have proved especially successful with neurotic children. A good example of this is seen in the case of H., a boy of nine. All attempts to cure his neurosis by psychological methods had failed. He had refused to learn at the public school, which, he said, was 'stealing his time'. He was sent to Herr Schieker where his extraordinary linguistic talents, which had been ignored before, were allowed to develop. Only then did the methods of psycho-analysis and individual psychology followed by Herr Schieker result in a complete cure.

In this school, neurotic and backward children adapt themselves to the more normal ones with surprising ease and rapidity. The amount of work expected from a child is always just what he can actually do. Thus his self-confidence is not diminished and he is allowed to choose for himself his field of activities. The good work which he thus produces has an encouraging and stimulating effect upon him. Needless to say, such treatment is the result of patient and loving study of the individual child.

Herr Schieker is equally successful with the



*Bathing in Sun and Water*



a-social or rebellious child who must be helped to adjust himself to community life. In this aid to adjustment no fixed methods or rules are followed. A good case in point is that of a boy from a working class family with particularly bad home conditions who had been roused to a fury of destruction, partly by the contrast between the atmosphere and cultural standard of the school and that of his home. He tried in every way to upset and spoil the school. One day the other children complained that they could not use the water closet any more. Herr Schieker, guessing the culprit, said promptly, 'I'm going to clean it up myself.' The children protested. All offered to do the cleaning up, and from that time forward the boy tried, like his fellows, to maintain the order and cleanliness of the school, took part in the social life with great interest, and

worked well. This is a good example of Herr Schieker's psychological insight and capacity to enter into a child's inner distress. Had he put the boy to the shame of open confession he would undoubtedly have fixed his scorn and mistrust of the community.

This loving and intuitive knowledge helps each child to the fullest realization of his powers, both artistic and academic. It is to this that Herr Schieker owes his success in developing the individuality of the child, while at the same time preparing him to hold his place in a competitive world. He has thus been able to convince the authorities that 'creative' teaching gives better results than the traditional methods, and that an atmosphere of leisure and freedom is of great educational value.

## Studying the Child's Physical Growth

CHARLES A. WILSON, M.D.

WHAT are our objectives in studying growth? The prime aim is to produce a better, superior human race. Individually it is to produce from each child the best possible person. But what is a superior human race and what is a superior person physically?

We are somewhat inclined to think of physical superiority as merely greatness of size, and it is probably true that the larger of two exactly similar persons would be the better. But a large person is never exactly like a small one. Many factors control his largeness, as many factors control the small person's smallness. Nor do these differences stop with physical qualities. Physical build influences one's thoughts, and these in turn affect one's experiences, so that persons of greatly differing sizes are likely to be dissimilar in many respects. Dr. T. Wingate Todd, of the Brush Foundation, Cleveland, has found that whether children belong to a large or a small family line, they mature at the same rate and 'punch the time-clock of growth with the same regularity'.

However, within normal limits we can assume that it is desirable that children should be large

and have a rapid growth. We want not merely anatomical size, of course, but a proper degree of physiological maturity as well. We want, also not spurts of unusually rapid growth, which are likely to indicate abnormality, but steady growth of moderate degree.

How are these objectives to be attained? The importance of good pre-natal care should be emphasized, first of all. Growth begins nine months before birth and passes through its most rapid phase during the early months of pre-natal life.<sup>1</sup> During the last half of intra-uterine life growth is much slower than during the first half—but, even so, much more rapid than at any time after birth. The physical state of the mother during this period undoubtedly affects the infant. It is essential that there should be adequate medical care, so that disease conditions may be detected and treated early. Good dietary care is also imperative. Dr. Royston, in an address before the American Dietetic Association,<sup>2</sup> suggested including in the daily dietary of the pregnant woman the following:—

Whole cereal grains, fruits, cooked or raw, 200 grams.

Raw or cooked vegetables, preferably the green



and leafy variety, such as lettuce, spinach, cabbage and onions, 300 grams.

Cow's milk, one quart, or 30 to 50 grams of cheese.

Citrous fruit juices for vitamins B and C, 200 cc.

Meats of any kind, but especially liver, valuable for the vitamins and blood-regenerating properties.

Fish for its iodine content.

Fats rich in vitamins, i.e., cream and butter.

Fluids in amounts of one and one-half to two quarts daily.

However, we know less about the effect of disturbances during pregnancy and can less well control them so far as the infant is concerned than during post-natal life. A knowledge of the natural course of growth during post-natal life, and of factors that tend to disturb it, is essential to an intelligent procedure in encouraging the child's uninterrupted progress toward maturity.

During the child's first year, rapid growth continues during the early months, gradually becoming slower. From the end of the first year until just before adolescence, there is a period of slow growth. At ten to twelve years the child begins rather suddenly to grow into maturity—a change which may be due to the normal inclination of the child to reach adolescence, rather than to any special care given to him.

In infancy the best single evidence of satisfactory growth is increase in weight. Infants will usually gain from four to eight ounces each week during the first six months and about four ounces a week during their second half year. However, it is unusual for the infant to go through his first year without some period or periods of slow progress or even cessation of growth, and after the first year growth becomes irregular. Camerer in Europe and Porter in the United States have reported that children usually grow more rapidly in one season of the

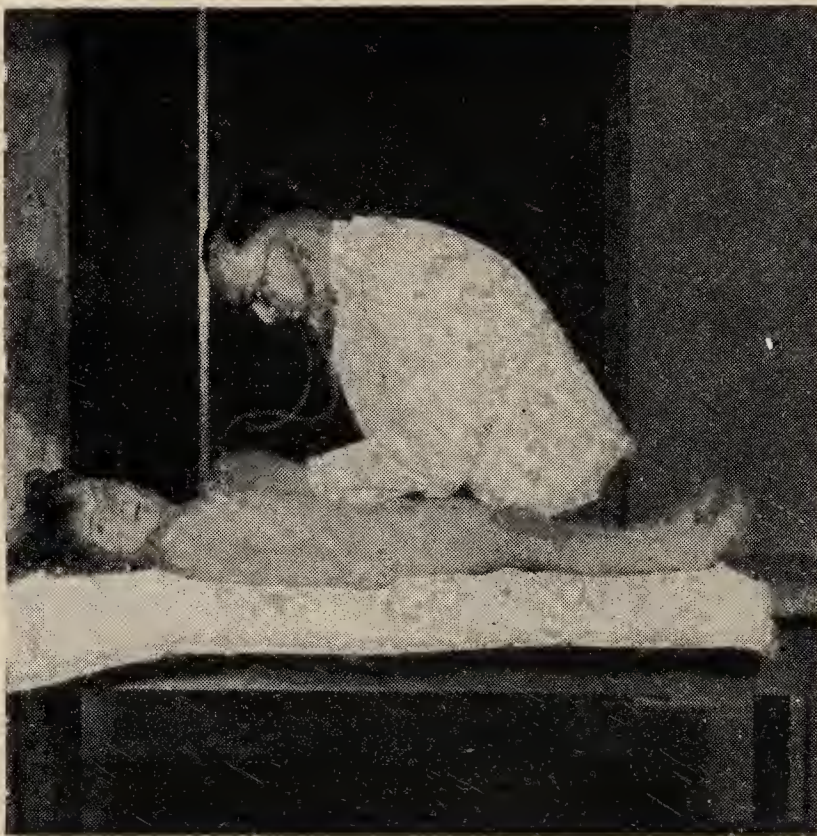
year than in another. Children also have varying rates of growth from day to day and from week to week.

It is apparent then that there are various reasons for changes in the rate of growth. The changes of rate in infancy and at adolescence are presumably due to natural, physiological causes and should not be disturbed. Whether the seasonal and weekly changes can or should be eliminated is an important matter. Certainly we should like to eliminate those periods of arrested growth which can be detected in almost any child studied for a long period. Some of the

factors that bring about these interruptions in the growth process we can trace. Periods of arrest are common in the winter and early spring, when colds and other infections are most common. Communicable diseases and other illnesses are likely to retard growth. One reason then for guarding against illness is that it interrupts growth.

In the summer growth varies with a number of factors. Children free from illness and getting plenty of outdoor life, with good food and good general hygiene, usually show more rapid

growth during the summer than at other seasons. We have had numerous instances, however, of children whose growth was poor during the summer and improved greatly during attendance at the nursery school, and this is probably true of children above nursery school age. The explanation seems to lie in the less regular régimes of these children when they are not attending school. During the vacation their diets may not be well supervised; the nursery school follows the home diet carefully and provides food at the school intended to supplement any deficiencies in the food supplied at home. The rest hour and the bedtime hour are also less well regulated during vacation in many



*A Physical Examination at the Merrill-Palmer School*



homes; both are likely to be regular during the school year. General hygienic supervision of the children may also be somewhat relaxed during the summer.

We have been in the habit of using height and weight as the most important indices of development after the period of infancy, comparing these measurements of the individual child with tables of averages for boys and girls of each year of age. The most commonly used tables in the United States are the Woodbury tables for children under six years of age and the Baldwin-Wood tables for children above five years of age.

These tables, for boys and girls separately, give the average weight for each inch of height at each age.

The more commonly used tables are averages, and one-half of the children represented will be below the figures in the tables and one-half above. These tables, then do not indicate the range of the group. A different method is represented in the Merrill-Palmer tables<sup>3</sup> for pre-school children, where figures are given for each of ten percentiles. It can thus be determined at once what the difference is in weight between the child who represents the

mean of the group and the one who is three-quarters of the way to the top, or in any other position between the extremes of weight of normal children of a certain height group. Tables of this kind are much more useful than those giving only averages, because they enable us to place the child in relation to one hundred children of the same height. Here, too, the background of the children must be taken into account. The Merrill-Palmer tables were developed from children attending the Merrill-Palmer nursery schools, and since the lower social levels are not represented in the group the data apply best to children who have not been 'under-privileged'.

Dr. Horace Gray has developed tables for boys in private schools, representing superior children. These averages can be assumed to represent nearly the optimal in development.

Other measures are of value in studying the growth of children. Scammon has made many different measures of the body and has studied exhaustively the measurements made by others. The Merrill-Palmer *Standards* include tentative standards for many traits other than height and weight. Franzen<sup>1</sup> questions the value of height-weight-age as an index of nutritional status. He believes that

'agreement between ratings of nutritional status made by physicians is too small to endorse this form of measurement.

The correlation of height with weight is not nearly as high as the correlation of other skeletal combinations with weight, therefore it seems that height is insufficient skeletal information to use as a basis of weight classification. Individual differences in chest dimensions and hips are even more important as determinants of variations in weight. Being underweight for a given height is very likely to mean small chest and hip dimensions.'

For a reliable index, Franzen would use a multiple of five skeletal dimensions. Better still, he considers, are the mul-

tiples of all eleven factors with weight, which

'are near unity, therefore it seems that practically all the individual variations in weight may be assigned to their measurable components. Analytic statements will show not only that a child is underweight, but just *why* he is underweight in terms of other physical traits.'

Over twenty years ago Rotch and Pryor recorded studies of X-rays of the hands and wrists and concluded that the first appearance of the various bony centres, as shown on the X-ray, is a measure of the maturity of the subject. Numerous observers have since then tried to correlate their results with physical size, mental development, and other characteristics. Though a general relation has been shown to



*Michigan school children of the same age—all are well-nourished and in good condition.  
N.B.—difference in size*



exist, it has not proved to be as close as was hoped. Todd<sup>5</sup> has developed a method of measuring the bony development of school-children which promises to be helpful; his data have not yet been made available for general use. Ritt and Sawtell<sup>6</sup> have made measurements of the bones of the hand in younger children with suggestive results. They are still checking and developing their work.

Though increase in weight has generally been considered the best criterion of regular growth, an example will show how far it is from being adequate in some cases and how necessary it is that further studies should be made. An infant seven months of age, slightly pale but otherwise apparently well, was brought for examination. The mother said the child cried when the left leg was moved, and her observation proved to be correct. The legs were moderately bent, and when the left leg was straightened the baby cried. The examination was otherwise negative. The baby had been fed an ordinary formula of cow's milk, boiled water, and a proprietary sugar. The mother had offered the baby orange juice, but the baby had refused it and the mother did not insist, especially since her finances were in a poor state. The history made the diagnosis quite clear. There was no known injury and a diagnosis of scurvy was made, which was confirmed by X-ray and treatment. Orange juice was given and in forty-eight hours the baby was apparently normal, in behaviour and appearance, though the work of Dr. Percy R. Howe<sup>7</sup> and others suggests that the effects of scurvy are long-standing.

Infantile scurvy is now seldom encountered, because Vitamin C is usually fed to infants regularly from the first or second month of life. Rickets, however, is still common in mild form. It appears in children who are heavy and apparently well. Cod-liver oil or Vitamin D in some form should prevent rickets, but it is known that rickets in slight degree is found in infants who have received apparently adequate amounts of the vitamin. Tuberculosis, a disease more common than people in general suppose, is likely to impair the growth of children and should not be ruled out as a cause of poor development in any child whose growth is poor. Diagnosis of tuberculosis in children is made by a tuberculin test, an X-ray of the chest, and a history, by which an attempt

is made to determine whether the child has had an opportunity to be infected by other persons, infected milk, or some other source. Congenital syphilis is a not uncommon cause of unfavourable development. Infected teeth, diseased tonsils, or foci of infection in any part of the body are likely to cause arrested or abnormal development.

Development and nutrition are inseparable. What do we mean by nutrition, or good or bad nutrition? We refer to the ability of the individual person, or his organs, to carry on the normal functions, considering the age or maturity of the person and the expected longevity of the person, or the part of the body. A very simple example is the carious tooth: here is definite evidence of poor nutrition, since the tooth cannot function normally and will not, unless treated, last its proper life-span and will further deteriorate rather than improve. It also indicates improper diet and poor care.

In general, we may say that our studies of growth are attempts to measure the degree of physiological maturity. We do not wish to hurry a child into maturity, but rather to measure, and encourage his steady development toward it. As others have stated, we are measuring progress—not attempting to make human beings fit into a mould. In the early days of scientific care of infants, infants were treated alike. Directions for feeding were printed on the packages of proprietary foods. Now it is recognized that the needs of the individual child must be considered and his expected growth given thought. Tables of averages are recognized as landmarks between the best and poorest attainments for a child of given height or age.

Progress, action, and change are the keynotes in childhood. The difference in average weight between children of two heights does not represent a growth curve. Tables of this kind should not therefore be used primarily as a means of telling whether the child is ahead of or behind the expected figure, but to mark his progress toward physiological maturity.

#### FOOT-NOTES

<sup>1</sup> Jackson, quoted by Feldman, *The Principles of Ante-Natal and Post-Natal Child Physiology Pure and Applied*. (Longmans, Green & Co., 1920.) P. 253.

<sup>2</sup> *A Review of Recent Research in Nutrition Pertaining to Parent Problems*. Julia Outhouse. New York:



The National Council of Parental Education, 1928. 15 pp.

<sup>3</sup> *The Merrill-Palmer Standards of Physical and Mental Growth*. Charles A. Wilson, Mary E. Sweeny, Rachel Stutsman, Leone E. Cheisre, and Elise Hatt. Detroit: The Merrill-Palmer School. 1930. 121 pp.

<sup>4</sup> *Physical Measures of Growth and Nutrition*. Raymond Franzen. New York: American Child Health Association. 1929. 138 pp.

<sup>5</sup> T. Wingate Todd, Western Reserve University, Cleveland. Unpublished material.

<sup>6</sup> 'Growth Studies by Roentgen Ray', Estelle F.

Ritt and Ruth Otis Sawtell. *American Journal of Physical Anthropology*, Vol. 14, No. 1 (January-March, 1930.) Pp. 1-8.

'Ossification and Growth of Children from One to Eight Years of Age', Ruth Otis Sawtell. *American Journal of Diseases of Children*, Vol. 37 (January, 1929.) Pp. 61-87.

'Sex Differences in the Bone Growth of Young Children', Ruth Otis Sawtell. *American Journal of Physical Anthropology*, Vol. 12, No. 2 (October-December, 1928.) Pp. 293-302.

<sup>7</sup> From a lecture in Detroit, 1927.

## International Friendship

### A Scheme of Work for School Societies

THE League of Nations Union has recently adopted a Scheme of Suggested Activities for boys and girls, in connection with which it proposes to give Record of Service Cards and certain awards to Junior Branches. Under the heading INTERNATIONAL FRIENDSHIP the following activities are suggested:—

#### Stage I.

- (a) Correspond continuously for one year with a boy or girl in some other country; and
- (b) Compile a book containing original notes and pictures or any kind of illustrations of life in that country.

For the purpose of this scheme correspondence may be conducted in English and in the case of young children who have no knowledge of a foreign language may take the form of exchanging postcards.

#### Stage II.

- (a) Correspond for a further year with a boy or girl in some other country.
- (b) To show a more detailed knowledge of the lives of the people in that country, write an account of the lives of three of the following: a musician, artist, scientist, writer, traveller, architect, inventor, or philosopher.
- (c) Write an original paper on some aspect of contemporary life in the country chosen above (e.g. industrial life or school life or village life, etc.).

#### Stage III.

- (a) Travel abroad in a School Journey or otherwise (special credit will be given by the Union to those who have studied at the Junior Summer School in Geneva or won travelling scholarships to other countries).
- (b) Write a report showing first-hand knowledge of the life of the people visited.

Or those who are unable to travel abroad may

- (a) Write a treatise showing (1) A considerable knowledge of the contemporary life of one foreign country, including its political, juridical and industrial systems and (2) Sufficient knowledge of its history and geography to explain the existing conditions.

Further activities are grouped under WORLD KNOWLEDGE and GENERAL ACTIVITIES.

In connection with this scheme the Union is preparing for its Junior Branches a Shield and a Flag. By means of stars to be inserted around a map, the shield will record the number of members who train themselves to be good citizens of the world and achievements of the Branch.

On the Flag Branches will be able to show the Honours they win by carrying their message out of school by performing Peace Plays and Pageants, arranging lantern lectures and cinematograph displays or by travelling abroad.

(To be continued.)



# First Steps to Freedom

## Shopping in an Infant School

M. McMILLAN

THIS may have a very misleading sound in connection with a modern infant School, but to anyone who has not had the advantage of possessing a 'real' shop, I may be able to give some slight idea as to how we combine joy and pleasure with actual practical shopping lessons.

The shop is stocked with all kinds and varieties of packets from many well-known firms. The children watched the process of 'window dressing', becoming

1d. to about 4d., the next stage being to give change from 6d.

No children are using more coins than their knowledge of number allows.

Before using 1s., lessons are given in the classrooms with their boxes of coins. The same applies to larger sums of money.

The top class have ruled out and written their own bill heads and write down the names of the articles that



more and more thrilled as each shelf was completed. When the counter was completely equipped with scales and weights (two sets, one given by an interested parent), a till, various packets and paper bags made by the children, their joy knew no bounds.

So keen and interested did they become that the enthusiasm spread to the parents and we had to have an 'Open Day', the shop being on view.

Then came the time for actually opening the shop.

It would be impossible to take a lesson with the whole class, so arrangements were made to enable a teacher to supervise from eight to ten children, to whom she can give her whole attention: two of these being 'shopmen' behind the counter.

The classes are eight in number and range in age from 5 to 8 years. The small children are given a few pennies (cardboard) and can buy articles costing from

have been bought, giving the prices and totalling the amount of the bill and giving change when necessary.

Besides the packet goods sent by the firms we had a good supply of rice, split peas, haricot beans, etc., which necessitate the use of scales. We had many voluntary gifts from the parents and we felt that the thought and time spent in the preparation was not in vain, when we realized what an opportunity it gave for yet another means of co-operation between the teachers and the parents.

We have found it rather difficult to be regular with the lessons as the Hall (where the shop is fixed—that being the only place possible) is so frequently in use, especially in the winter and during wet weather; but we have managed by the use of screens to shut off the drill or singing class and the 'shoppers' become so engrossed that apparently no noise disturbs them.



# Sex Instruction

Miss Moberly Bell writes:

I suppose few people would differ from the view Miss Johnson expresses in your November issue that Sex Instruction 'is best given by the parents as the individual child needs it'—but if we are to accept her conclusion that there is 'silent but determined opposition by parents and general public' to such instruction it is clear our children of to-day are little likely to get it, in this best way. It appears that, even after lectures by lady doctors, parents remain obdurate, and children uninstructed. Would it not be better then for us, in schools, to abandon the struggle to make the mothers teach their children, and turn to the children themselves in the hope that the next generation of mothers may regard sex in a more simple, natural way?

I have found, in practice, very little difficulty in this. The most important thing seems to me to be to teach the facts of child birth perfectly naturally, as one teaches anything else. I do not ask a mother if she would like me to teach her daughter about it. I am inclined to think that such a question at once suggests that there is something 'modern' and rather risky in such teaching. I merely tell her that it is our custom to teach about sex and child birth as occasion rises, and urge her very strongly to teach the child herself before she enters the school, or, if the child is too young, as soon as she asks any questions. Most mothers declare that it is perfectly impossible for them to teach the subject. In over ten years only two mothers have ever made any objection to *our* teaching it, and these did not carry their objection to the length of refraining from entering the child.

It is natural that children want to know how babies come. Our custom is to answer perfectly simply as soon as any child asks. It is important not to seem the least embarrassed and to answer as one would any other question that arose out of the work in hand. Any member of the staff who does not feel she can do this is told to reply: 'I haven't time to go into that just now. Ask Miss Bell in your next Scripture lesson.'

The obvious difficulty is to find the right moment to deal with the subject. One does not want to force it on any child's attention before her curiosity is aroused and of course a precocious child may oblige one to discuss it before the whole form is ready for it. This, however, matters less than one might suppose. A few years ago a form of eleven-year-olds asked me about it. Being sure I had taught those children about it some years previously, I asked 'Didn't I tell you all this in Form II?' 'Oh, yes', came the reply, 'X asked you and you told us, but we hadn't really got interested, so we didn't take it in much.'

When children are ready to take it in, if one's relations with them are simple enough, so that they

are in the way of asking one naturally about any difficulty that arises, they ask readily enough about child birth. In my experience it has generally arisen in Scripture out of the story of the Annunciation or Nativity, or the birth of Samson or Saint John the Baptist, but sometimes it is a new baby sister or brother, or sometimes a family of kittens.

I do not as a rule go very thoroughly into the question, but I leave no question unanswered. Some children ask for far more details than others. When I have answered the questions, I tell them that they will learn it all more exactly and fully in their Science lessons in Form IIIA (where it is part of the regular course) and that in the meantime there is a book about it, quite easy to understand, in the Science Library which they can borrow if they like.

I tell them too, that it is not a subject one discusses indiscriminately, because marrying and having babies is a very intimate relationship, and one does not talk with mere acquaintances about things that belong to the intimacies of one's home and family.

As a general rule the children do not pursue the subject further; very few borrow the book from the library, and I have never known any talk about it in the school. I have had a new child, who missed the instruction through absence, brought to me by one of her Form who said, 'X is trying to find out about babies—we can't tell her properly, so will you.'

The great advantage of treating the subject in this way seems to me that it becomes part of a child's ordinary scientific knowledge, and no emotional stress is laid on it. In reading the Bible or Shakespeare and in teaching History one cannot help coming across such words as 'womb', 'conception', 'illegitimate', 'posthumous', 'bastard', etc. If your pupils have been taught about the bearing of children they present no difficulty; if they have not, and if—worse still—it is our duty to avoid enlightenment on the subject, we can only pray fervently that they may refrain from asking their meaning. A child with a wrong attitude can and will take pleasure in confusing a mistress by questions that she knows are awkward, but even apart from that, how many of us in youth tormented our embarrassed teachers by a perfectly genuine and innocent desire to find out *exactly* who Monmouth was—why anyone imagined he might succeed Charles II. I remember as a schoolgirl getting into very serious trouble because, having learnt in English, in answer to a question, that 'bastard' was 'a term of abuse' I used it on my adversary the next time I quarrelled. Such embarrassments may be of small importance. What is surely of great importance is that children shall not grow up feeling that a knowledge of sex is somehow different from all other knowledge, and to be spoken of only with bated breath, somehow embarrassing, somehow vaguely, excitingly improper.



# International Notes

## New Education Fellowship News

THE ORGANIZING DIRECTOR returned from her American and Canadian lecturing tour at the end of December. She found great enthusiasm for the work of the Fellowship and also a keen interest in the Nice Conference in both countries. She will be in Ireland on a lecture tour from 3rd to 10th February, and will be addressing meetings in Belfast, Limavady, Dublin and Waterford. The North Ireland branch of the New Education Fellowship has organized a large public meeting in the evening of Thursday, 4th February, at which Sir Richard Livingstone, Vice-Chancellor of Queen's University, will take the Chair.

Lecture tours in Scotland have been arranged for the Organizing Director from 10th to 19th March, and for the Assistant Director from 7th to 14th February.

THE ARRANGEMENTS FOR THE NICE CONFERENCE are going forward apace, and are arousing great interest in all sections of the Fellowship.

Mrs. A. H. Reeve, President of the International Fellowship of Home and School, is organizing the section on the Family, and there is to be a section on International Understanding, at which Sir Norman Angell has agreed to speak.

MR. SALTER DAVIES gave his first address as President of the English Section of the *New Education Fellowship* at the Conference of Educational Associations. While admitting that 'there is nothing new under the sun' he claimed that the general practice in education to-day is so different from that of yesterday that we may legitimately call this a new era in education. What are its essential elements of novelty? The old education laid undue emphasis on instruction. The duty of the teacher was to pass on to his pupils such knowledge as he himself possessed. His methods of so doing were often of the harshest. A girl of gentle birth said of her sixteenth century schooling, 'scarcely a day passed without one flogging, or more, and generally with my head broken in one or two places'.

Dickens gave one of the astutest summaries of the aim of education: 'to make useful and happy men and women'. Yet the old educational system taught the pupil to endure hardness. In their reaction from it modern educationalists must bear in mind that some measure of compulsion is a necessary basis of freedom.

The modern teacher tends to talk too much and do too much for his pupils. His true duty is to exert a constant benevolent superintendence, calling forth what is best in the pupil—'not to tell him what he knows not, but to make him what he is not'.

Mr. Salter Davies said that life may be divided into two hemispheres; beauty and truth; usefulness and goodness. As Croce said: 'Art is the root of our mental life, not its flower.' Man is potentially poet, philosopher, worker and saint. It is up to the new education to release these potentialities.

DR. HAROLD RUGG has started out at the invitation of the Chinese educational authorities on a lecture tour. He will lecture mainly on social studies, and much of his work will be in connection with the Tientsin University. His outward route will lie through Japan, and he will return via Soviet Russia. We shall hope to hear something of his experiences at Nice.



## Obituary

We regret to announce the sudden death of Dr. Randall J. Condon. Dr. Condon was for many years Superintendent of Schools in Cincinnati, and since his retirement he has interested himself actively in progressive education, particularly, perhaps in Parental Education. Many of our readers will remember him at the Conference at Elsinore, and he had hoped to be present at the Sixth World Conference at Nice. His death will be regretted by many and is a real loss to the cause of progressive education.



## General News

*Twentieth Conference of Educational Associations, 1932*—During the week of meetings 3,219 persons registered, and many of them attended on more than one occasion. Of the 48 Associations affiliated, 41 held meetings. The presidential address was delivered by Sir William Rothenstein, who deplored 'the modern tendency towards mechanization' and pointed out the danger of its invading education. While urging the important rôle of the Arts in education, Sir William is very doubtful of the value of making all the pupils in a school draw or learn music. 'You must have a natural basis of understanding in order to go far with any knowledge. I hope you will have no hesitation in pointing out when a child has not got the necessary intuition which will allow him or her to develop along certain directions. Life is so wide; there are so many ways along which a child can develop. If you develop along one direction you will find the keys to open many doors, but if you play with too many keys and too many doors you risk superficiality and even failure.'

At the Joint Conference on *Training for World Peace*, Professor R. McElroy declared that anyone who believed that we were going to get everlasting peace by signing documents, however piously drawn up, was certain of disillusionment. We must create the international mind, able to think world thoughts, to view world standards, and thereby guarantee world peace. The solving of this problem is the business of education.

Professor Gilbert Murray said that the teaching of the aims and work of the League meets with varying success in the League countries. The success in British schools—particularly in regard to the spirit



of the Covenant—is definitely admirable. It is the spirit which underlies the Covenant which must be taught to children. They need not be made authorities on International Law, but they must be taught to regard international co-operation as the normal method of world-government, and that the evil act of invading another country cannot be made good under the cloak of 'a declaration of war'.

Full reports of all the meetings held during the week of conferences will be found in the Conference Report, which will be published in March (price 4s. 6d.) from the Conference office, 29 Gordon Square, W.C.1.



### Czecho-Slovakia

*Parents' Associations*—Hitherto the relations between the schools and the parents have generally consisted of social evenings, festivals, school exhibitions and lectures. By a decree of 19th June, 1930, the Minister of Public Instruction has decided to organize Parents' Associations throughout the country, and has defined their purposes and limited their functions.—(*Bulletin*, International Bureau of Education.)



### Broadcast Adult Education

A series of six talks is taking place in February and March arranged by the Central Council for Broadcast Adult Education, on Changes in Family Life, and will be given by Sir William Beveridge, Director of the London School of Economics. In connection with these talks a Family Return has been prepared which contains a series of questions on such matters as the changes in the age of marriage during the last two generations, changes in occupation between parents and children, relationships within the family, family budgets and so on. These investigations are being undertaken by Sir William Beveridge, and the results when received will be dealt with under conditions of strict anonymity at the London School of Economics, and in due course will be freely published. Naturally, the success of this experiment depends largely on the number of careful and accurate replies received and suggestions for making the investigation better known will be welcomed. Copies of the Family Return will be sent freely on application to the B.B.C. Publications Department.



### Nursery School Association of Great Britain

The Eighth Annual Meeting and Conference was held on 9th January in connection with the Annual Conference of Educational Associations at Univer-

sity College. In spite of the weather there was a good attendance. In the absence of Miss de Lissa, Miss Ryle, the acting Chairman of the Association, presided over the Annual Meeting. The Annual Report and Balance Sheet for 1931 were read and approved. Both showed that although the year had been difficult, it had been one of considerable activity and progress. It was agreed that it would be more than ever necessary to exert the utmost effort to preserve and extend the work in 1932. Though representatives of the branches in some cases expressed discouragement, the prevailing note was courageous and hopeful.

The Officers of the Association were re-elected. Two additional Vice-Presidents were elected: Dr. Catherine Chisholm, who has hitherto served as a valued member of the Committee, and Mrs. Katharine Bruce Glasier, who will bring new fire and enthusiasm to the work of the Association. The retiring members of Committee were re-elected, and through vacancies and co-option it was strengthened by the addition of Miss H. Bronn Smith, Miss S. E. Davies, and Miss A. M. Wallis.

It was announced that with the kind co-operation of the Vice-Chancellor of the University, the Reading Branch of the Association was arranging for the Summer Conference of 1932, to be held during the week-end 10th to 13th June, at Reading. Members of the Association were urged to book these dates without delay.

The Annual Meeting was followed by the Open Meeting, at which an address by Dr. William Moodie, of the Child Guidance Clinic, was given on 'The Early Development of the Child,' with Miss Margaret Drummond, M.A., Vice-Chairman of the Association, in the Chair. The interest aroused by this address was clearly shown by the numerous questions from the audience which followed. A very hearty vote of thanks to the Lecturer and Chairman was moved by Miss Rennie and carried unanimously.



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**Culture and Education in America.** By Harold Rugg (Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York)

The reader who would hope to follow Dr. Rugg must wear seven-league boots. The problem he sets out to solve is nothing less than the reconstruction of society through educational reconstruction, and in the quest for a solution he ranges through the whole story of the making of America and seeks its deeper meanings, not only in the development of its culture by creative poets, artists, thinkers and doers, but by linking it up with great world movements in different lands. It is a great piece of work, energized by that creative spirit for whose workings Dr. Rugg seeks diligently, in an attempt to define the direction in which American culture is moving.

The American philosophy of life, as he expounds it at length, has two foci: technology and art. In the conquest of a continent, America has developed a power over natural conditions unprecedented in human history, and it is fitting that *the* American philosophy should be pragmatic, an engineer's philosophy, a rationalization of the great technology. But though Dr. Rugg has a profound admiration for the working out of the experimental view of thinking as the foundation of a free democracy by Professor John Dewey, and gives a clear analysis of its basic themes, he finds pragmatism lacking in dynamic propulsive power. Along this line of thought he comes to the conclusion that there are other methods of knowing than that of the scientist and the technician, and turns for a deeper philosophy to the concepts of the artist. In doing so, he reveals the working of a manifold urge to individual expression among the creative people of the twentieth century, which stresses the integrity, uniqueness and superiority of personality. By the double way of approach, through science and through art, he has got a portrait of the cultured man, and with it the problem of making a society of cultured men. How is it to be done? The school, he answers, must become a dynamic agency of social regeneration; and for that it must work under guidance of an intelligible description of the existing society, suitable for use in American schools and in adult discussion groups. He himself with a band of colleagues has been at work since 1921, developing criteria and techniques for an adequate account of the working of social institutions with this end in view, and he gives a tentative report of his more

important findings. From that he passes on to discuss the rôle of the school in community culture, 'in the integration of the educational functions of all the social agencies, and in the development of the creative act and its contribution to the art of self-cultivation in the production of a new curriculum', and ends up by forecasting new ways of training the teachers through whom this revolution is to be achieved. Concerning the book as a whole, there can be nothing but admiration expressed, especially when one sees it in relation to the most laborious research which Dr. Rugg has been doing to furnish the schools with first-hand materials for the understanding of American civilization. The only mis-giving concerns the philosophical substructure. It is not merely pragmatists who will be critical of the underlying dualism involved in the attempt to include the concepts of both science and art in his scheme of thought, without finding the unity which underlies them. What, in short, is the relation of the analytic method of science and of pragmatism and the intuitions of the creative artist? The question really raises problems beyond philosophy in regard to American civilization and the loyalties that give it coherence. What one would like to ask Professor Rugg is whether the artistic individualism for which he seems to stand is really capable of providing a sound foundation for the common life of man. It is doubtful.

William Boyd

**The Unseen Assassins.** Sir Norman Angell (Hamish Hamilton. 7s. 6d.)

This volume by one of the most famous of English publicists is a call to education to put its house in order. By making no real attempt to present to their pupils the economic and political foundations upon which the social organization of the modern world is based, our schools and universities have failed us to-day in the essential task of applying science to social welfare. Not only so, but they continue in many ways to foster unconsciously the nationalistic attitude of mind which lies at the root of the present economic and political *impasse*. We need a new educational effort to correct this attitude. The strength of the author's convictions on this point is shown by the fact that Sir Norman is one of a small Committee working with the Fellowship to see how some of these commonplaces of economics and government



can be suitably presented to all children over 11. It is hoped that this Committee will report on its work at the Nice Conference in August.

**The Austrian Educational Institutes.** By Beryl Parker (*Austrian Federal Publisher for Education, Vienna, also the New York University Bookshop.*)

The B.E.A. of Austria, which were inspired by the English Public Schools and the Landerziehungsheime of Germany and Switzerland, have long been famous. These six boarding schools (four for boys and two for girls) were created in 1919-20 by the Austrian Federal Government in order to provide a secondary education for gifted children from the poorer sections of the community. They were also to act as pioneer experimental schools. Their experience is a particularly interesting example of the value and limitations of State controlled boarding schools. In 1927 they were made a permanent part of the State system, thus achieving a sense of security at the cost of some sacrifice of academic freedom. The story of their development in the last twelve years is well told in this volume by the joint author of *The New Education in the German Republic*. She places them in their proper setting against the social and educational background of post-war Austria and concludes with a sober evaluation of the lessons we may learn from them. The book is beautifully produced and richly illustrated.

**Choral Speaking.** Marjorie Gullan. (Methuen. 3s. 6d.)

A clear, concise and interesting volume, *Choral Speaking* is symptomatic of the increasing interest in speech in Great Britain. Miss Gullan would have us realize that there is a definite artistic experience to be obtained from speech, and that, for the majority of people, team work provides the best method of approach. Nevertheless, within her scheme of things there is ample scope for the development of individual expression. The conductor and the choir are first considered, then follow chapters on material, the technical equipment of the choir, rhythm and the various uses of the art. The last chapter, headed 'Difficulties and Dangers', is most interesting as it deals with debatable points. Miss Gullan makes a point of the danger of a choir being dull to listen to, though technically excellent. She realizes the pitfalls and indicates the right paths; those who wander after reading the book do so without excuse. The world is badly in need of colour, and this book is a message in dark times telling us that in choral speaking there is the chance for all to brighten drab lives, and to feel for the first time, in many cases, that the great thoughts and colourful music of the poets are a common heritage. At the end of Miss Gullan's book is a very helpful selection of books from which these thoughts and this music are obtainable.

Henry W. Howes

**The Clarendon Song Books, No. 1a. The Boys' Book of Songs, No. 1.** Edited by W. G. Whittaker, H. Wiseman and J. Wish. (Oxford University Press. 2s. 6d. each.)

The above books may be recommended to those interested in class singing material. Containing delightful examples of folk songs, classical and modern songs, in which good music is allied with words of literary value, they provide an excellent basis for true musical culture. Unison and two-part songs are included; also rounds.

A number of unison and two-part songs from *A Children's Cantata*, by Robin Milford are now published separately, from 2d. to 5d. a copy. These form an attractive addition to vocal music for the middle school.

M. A. Carnell

**'How and Why Series.'** Edited by Gerald Bullett (Black. 2s. 6d. each.)

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2. **THE STORY OF CIVILIZATION.** C. E. M. Joad.

A book that definitely challenges accepted ideas of civilization—that puts on one side the civilizations of Assyria and Babylon and men like Cæsar and Napoleon and Alexander as being 'treacle toffee' civilizations and 'treacle toffee' men seeking only power and wealth, not beauty and freedom and justice.

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G. G. Coleman



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## IN HOME AND SCHOOL

*A Monthly Magazine for Parents and Teachers*

Entered as second class matter, September 23rd, 1930, at the Post Office at  
New York, N.Y., under the Act of March 3rd, 1878 (Sec. 397. P.L. & R.)

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*Vol. 13, No. 3*

*6d. (8d. post free); 25 ¢ (35 ¢ post free)*

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*The Editor is not responsible for views expressed by contributors*

MARCH 1932

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# New Ways of Learning



*Community School, St. Louis*



# THE NEW ERA

## IN HOME AND SCHOOL

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### Outlook Tower

#### *Intellectual Snobbery*

Certain of the conventions that straitened the lives of our grandmothers have lost all hold upon us nowadays. Yet there is one that dies very hard—the convention that determines what one must know in order to be considered an educated person. The things that must be known are mainly quite remote from actual life; but it is the things that need *not* be known that makes this convention so remarkable. Thus, one must have a bowing acquaintance with Elizabethan literature, but it is quite permissible to be sublimely ignorant of the laws of human physiology. Until we can rid ourselves of such false standards and accept a more actual scale of values, no effective changes in curriculum can be made, because parents will fear to handicap their children by depriving them of a 'normal' schooling.

We must learn to realize that the mechanic or the farmer who has intelligently studied the science of his craft is not less educated than the present middle-class social product with his veneer of culture.

#### *Unsatisfactory Curricula*

What thoughtful person is satisfied with the modern curriculum? Is the child content to struggle with present-day examinations, to the exclusion of his interests in machinery or wireless or his special aptitudes in music, drawing, drama or craftsmanship? Is the parent content to see his child so run into the common mould, much of his time and special talents wasted? Is the teacher satisfied that he can help his pupils to develop their fullest powers while he is obliged to cram them with facts at such a pace? Is the employer satisfied with the standard of efficiency and adaptability produced by current methods of education? And if neither parent, child, teacher nor employer is content with the

modern process of education, can the ratepayer fail to gird at being asked to finance so costly and unprofitable an undertaking?

Yet education is generally recognized as the most potent force in the world to-day and every country is giving increased educational facilities to its people. In this connection we are threatened with the danger of a general standardization of culture. We have raised mass production to a fine art in industry. In the name of all that is human let us call a halt before we perfect the same process in education.

*First Principles* We must go back to first principles. The function of education is to foster growth—*ergo* the first duty of the teacher is to study the laws of growth and to determine what environment is best calculated to enable each child to attain to the height of his powers. 'The school must be thought of primarily not as a place where certain knowledge is learnt, but as a place where the young are disciplined in certain forms of activity—namely, those that are of greatest and most permanent significance in the wider world. Those activities fall naturally into two groups. In the first we place the activities that safeguard the conditions and maintain the standard of individual and social life, such as the care of health and bodily grace, manners, social organization, morals, religion; in the second, the typical creative activities that constitute, so to speak the solid tissue of civilization.'\*

Obviously there is an irreducible minimum that every normal child must know if he is to take his normal place in the world. He must be able to read intelligently, so that reading is really an instrument for the acquiring of such book-learning as he needs; he must be able to work out

\* Sir Percy Nunn, *Education, its Data and First Principles*, p. 242.



rapidly and effortlessly such 'sums' as occur in ordinary life; he must be able to write legibly or use a typewriter proficiently and he must be able to express himself clearly, and if possible elegantly, in his own language, both by word of mouth and on paper.

*A Free Curriculum* This is the minimum of 'private' aptitudes that every child must possess. We believe that his further activities may safely be left to his own choosing. There should be no arbitrary rulings about subject-matter. Classics may be for an individual child an avenue into a rich field of interest. To another they may be but the dull learning of the minimum amount required to pass a certain examination. Mathematics are to some a natural field of expression and a key to pursuits of an absorbing nature. To others they entail only hours spent in dealing with something that is un-understandable and has no real relation to life. So in curriculum planning, apart from the essentials laid down above, the widest differentiation should be permitted. Whatever a child's bent, he should find in the school the requisite workshops, studios, laboratories and libraries, and a vital stimulus from a teacher who should be himself a worker in the sphere chosen by the child.

*Training for World Citizenship* As regards his 'social' aptitudes, the child should be carefully trained, from a very early age, to co-operate with his fellows. He should learn how to choose his leaders thoughtfully, not merely because they are popular but because they are the best people for the work on hand. The power of leadership itself is perhaps innate, but its proper use can be trained in school. In all this business of finding a *modus vivendi* with his fellows and of learning to put the common good beyond his own, the school can afford the child invaluable lessons. The best of the schools have always done so, but one of the worst indictments of the current system as seen in an average day-school is that it counts such things a waste of time.

Alongside of this practical training in citizenship the school should provide its older pupils with a course covering the field generally known under the vague heading of Social Studies. This we consider essential, as we see in the school a

microcosm of the world, in which world-citizens are made or marred. Such a course should give an adequate idea of various systems of government and of economic theory and should encourage discussions on such matters. It should make children aware of the chief social problems that will await their solving, both in their own country and the world at large. Dr. Harold Rugg in his social studies and curriculum research has made a beginning in the analysis of material to be presented to children from this standpoint. He has deliberately attacked his subject from the American angle. It would perhaps be valuable if a body of experts could do this on a larger scale from a world point of view.

*Stumbling Blocks* In the primary schools all over the world there have been reforms in the direction indicated here, but their adoption in the secondary schools has been largely impeded by the rigours of public examinations. The question of examination reform is a crucial one. The trouble is that the present system tires out the child and robs him of much of his *joie de vivre* without achieving its own ends, which are to select and grade pupils according to their suitability for carrying out certain kinds of work in the world. 'We want the kind of person who understands the sort of job that has to be done by modern government. Therefore I think that we need new tests to discover that kind of person, but we have not discovered what kind of tests would give us the person that we hope for.'\*

When more freedom is given, teachers should show initiative in planning their schemes of work. While it is true that the outstanding teacher will, in spite of all difficulties, make of education a vital thing, based on the interests of the pupils and related to real life, we cannot depend on a sufficiency of outstanding teachers and we must therefore turn our attention to the training of teachers in the new techniques and endeavour to awaken in them the spirit of the new education.

Finally we would point out that the reform of curriculum, of examinations and of teachers' training is all part of the same intricate problem—the re-orientation of education towards the special needs of the child and his growth.

\* Professor Delisle Burns.



# *The Key to To-morrow—II*

## *The Reconstruction of the Curriculum*

WYATT T. R. RAWSON

THE world has always been changing and will always continue to do so. But it is only comparatively recently that we have become fully alive to this fact of change or have thought of it in the terms of progress. Most people now vaguely realize that all established institutions tend to lag behind the times and need constant changing to meet new demands. Education, in particular, must be continuously re-adapted to varying conditions in the home and in the outside world if it is to continue to perform its proper function in society. We must also bear a further fact in mind, that it is largely to education, and to education in the school, that the majority of modern thinkers are looking for an improvement of our society and the bettering of our social conditions.

It must therefore be clear to most of us to-day that no curriculum that is not being continuously re-adapted can serve its proper purpose. The curriculum must be kept up to date, that is, related to the chief needs of society at each particular period. But what are the chief needs of society to-day? What are the essential problems that await solution? An answer to these questions will give us a proper setting for our discussion of curriculum reform.

The Nineteenth Century secured for man a revolutionary control over his inanimate environment, but it did nothing to enlarge correspondingly the powers of his own mind. A dangerous disequilibrium has thus been set up. This enormous and sudden increase of man's control over matter has produced a situation with which our minds, adapted as they have been to quite other conditions and slow to change, are quite inadequate to deal. We repeat the old slogans and the old acts, without realizing that to-day they bring about results quite different from those they once produced. We still think of war in terms of Trafalgar and Waterloo, even while bombs are being dropped on the civilian population of Chapei. Have we yet realized that in the modern world the economic distress of one country is bound to increase the economic

difficulties of all? Have we taken to heart the fact that under modern conditions production is almost illimitable, and that, were the problems of credit and exchange once solved, want and scarcity could be eliminated from the world?

We have created for ourselves a magnificent mechanical giant. At present we are playing with it as a child with a toy which it does not understand. What we now need is to learn to control our own minds, in order to master the mechanical world we have created and make it serve our human purposes. Will a technical education in the biological and mental sciences effect this result? There is no doubt that we have still far to go in introducing the newer sciences into the school curriculum. In the field of Biology, Psychology and Economics, there are now large bodies of agreed doctrine. Biology, in particular, has long been in a position to demand entrance into the school, and it is high time that it was thought of as an integral and essential part of the curriculum. The way is not so plain in the case of Psychology or of Economics, but the accepted commonplaces of these studies so often form the topic of discussion among intelligent parents, that there is no doubt that most boys and girls have picked up ill-digested notions on both subjects long before they have left school. We may affirm that the time will very shortly come (if it is not here already) when a large body of agreed doctrine will exist in both subjects, and only fear of the new, or lack of this elementary knowledge on the part of the teachers, will prevent us from including both in the curriculum of the school.

But such an extension of what is really Technical Education is far from being the most pressing need of this age. Science cannot by itself ensure that the instrument it puts into our hands shall be used for good rather than for ill. The psychologist who starts by investigating the origin of fear in children, ends by becoming adviser to the advertising firms who wish to persuade children to eat more sweets than are good for them. What we need is a control of our



minds in terms of purpose. Without the unifying and controlling effect of a central purpose that looks beyond individual success, we lie at the mercy of isolated instincts and impulses, whose satisfaction leaves us still dissatisfied. What we need is cultural education; for the cultured individual is one who has experienced, and found satisfaction in, the finer purposes and values of life.

There are many definitions of culture. May I be permitted to formulate yet another? Culture is an intelligent, artistic and humane approach to the problems of everyday life. Culture is not a body of information or a tradition that can be handed on like a packet of goods from one person to another. It is an attitude, not a body of doctrine. A knowledge of the classics is no more a guarantee of culture than is a knowledge of modern science. Because the study of Greek and Roman literature and civilization has in the past been made a vehicle for the conveyance of a cultural attitude, it does not follow that such a study is in itself of pre-eminent cultural value. In fact, the world of classical antiquity has now largely lost its value as a teaching medium. In 1760 it was still possible to quote the classics with relevance to the economic, political and social situation in Europe. To-day conditions have so altered, that, as all who teach the classics know to their cost, it requires a great effort of imagination to put ourselves back into the physical and mental limitations of the Greco-Roman world. In spite of the very few great thinkers and artists of classical antiquity who still mean much to us to-day, the world in which they lived is as difficult to reconstruct as a dream upon waking. It is of very little use, therefore, as a means of developing a cultural attitude to our problems in the Twentieth Century.

Our crying need to-day is not for specialists, but for the cultured individual. If modern democracy is to be a success, it must be founded upon a broad base of cultured personalities. Culture is a synthesis, a point of view towards experience as a whole, and cannot be produced by any combination of specialisms. Thus we cannot hope to form the ideal curriculum by bringing together a number of specialists and asking them each to draw up a curriculum for their own subject. The result is a chaos of

unrelated knowledge and skills, in which culture disappears. The same error is often made when we ask whether some subject has educational value. By educationally valuable we too often mean valuable as leading to the acquirement of some particular knowledge or skill. Such a view of education is fatally narrow. Do we give lessons in music appreciation so that children may learn to analyse the music they hear, and thus increase their technical proficiency, or so that they may learn to respond to finer, more exquisite moods? Do we take them to art galleries so that they may talk intelligently about pictures and schools of art, or so that they may learn to divine the beauty that is in nature and in man? In fact, is art to be valued as a direct experience for the child, or as a preparation for something else? There can be no hesitation as to our answer, for our educational aim is the cultured person, that is, one who has experienced, and learnt to value, the finer things in life.

Now what do these general considerations mean for our curriculum? Let us take the three parts of our definition separately. Culture is an intelligent approach to the problem of everyday life. Education in the intellectual sphere is the doing away with prejudices. This requires thought. But we are only likely to think when we are compelled to think. Prejudice is accepted as truth until it meets with opposing opinions. To further culture, that is, properly assimilated knowledge, we must put before our pupils conflicting opinions and thereby stir them to thought. So far from deprecating free discussion in the classroom, we must work by means of it. It must be discussion upon the present problems of the world in their simpler aspects. The teacher should think it his job to stimulate discussion not only about facts but also about values. In doing so he will inevitably bring his pupils to realize how difficult it is to gather facts, and how varied are the sincerest opinions about them. It will also demand a new attitude, a new humility from the teacher, and a real belief in the procedure and spirit of scientific inquiry.

If this be our aim, our greatest danger in the intellectual sphere is what Professor Whitehead has called 'inert ideas'. We should give only the minimum of information and give it only as it is required, for our main object will be to give children facts only when they can digest them.



This requires a reform of method, quite apart from a reform of curriculum. Many different methods, such as the 'Project Method', the 'Method of Purposeful Activity', etc., have been devised with this aim in view. They are ways of arousing children's interests, and thereby stimulating them to observe and to reflect, and ultimately to judge independently. Without some such reform of method the most ideal programme of work will not produce the cultured individual.

A love of beauty and some ability in artistic self-expression are essential elements in a cultured personality. In our curriculum, therefore, the arts should be as important as the intellectual elements. It is sad that artistic subjects should still be considered frills, and therefore be the first to suffer in times of economy. How can a well-balanced (and in consequence morally estimable) character be achieved, if artistic self-development is not encouraged? Another blight lies over the arts. They are still for the most part taught with all the accent laid upon the acquirement of a technique. Boys and girls learn to draw, to play the piano, to recite, but not for one moment are their artistic sensibilities stirred, much less trained. The object and value of all the artistic side of the curriculum are to be found in the release of the creative faculties of the child. Artistic technique should be acquired as and when it is needed, not as an end for itself. To observe nature, to appreciate the traditions of art, to produce spontaneous artistic work, are the three essential elements in all art forms, and they should never be divorced from one another. You cannot 'prepare' for original work by doing work that is not original. All children have something of the artist in them, as the remedial work for abnormal and mentally deficient children in music and rhythmic shows. This original spark is the *raison-d'être* of art subjects in the curriculum, whether art takes the form of acting, or painting, dancing or pottery, music or dress design.

What of the third part of our definition? Culture is sympathy, an understanding and appreciation of the thoughts and feelings of others. Moral training is best thought of as a constant widening of this area of sympathetic

understanding. Discipline and self-control miss their aim if they are unconnected with this positive virtue, and become a hindrance to the highest life by depriving it of all vigour. In this matter of moral education a revolution is taking place. The old authoritarian tradition of birch, cane and strap, of compulsory obedience to an external code, is breaking down. In its place a new tradition of self-discipline is being built up with the introduction of corporate self-government into the school and the training in co-operation that it involves. Ultimately there is no doubt that we will do away with corporal punishment and other forms of external discipline. When classrooms are suitably furnished to allow of plenty of free movement, when the intellectual curriculum is properly arranged to suit individual capacity and is balanced by equally varied opportunities for self-expression work, the present unnatural tension of the classroom will disappear, and the way will be open for a sympathetic treatment of moral faults which will no longer be confused with classroom misdemeanours.

Culture is an individual creation; it cannot be forced upon anyone. Only by ridding the child of the fear of authority can he be given the freedom of mind which is essential if he is to choose the good of his own free will, and without this freedom of choice there is no way of developing a morally cultured personality. Our old conventions, social and moral habits, based not upon a voluntary acceptance of certain facts and values but upon blind obedience to an unalterable code, have failed to adapt themselves to the new conditions of life. In consequence they are everywhere being abandoned. Unfortunately no new traditions have yet been developed in their place. Therefore we need more than ever to become alive to values. In particular our aim must be to train the younger generation to approach their everyday problems intelligently, graciously and with sympathy for all living beings. We cannot hope to achieve this attitude of mind in all members of society, but we *can* make it our ideal, thus securing it in some degree in the majority and in a very high degree in our leaders. It is this ideal that should remain constantly before us when we plan the school curriculum.



# Mental Lumber

HUGHES MEARNS

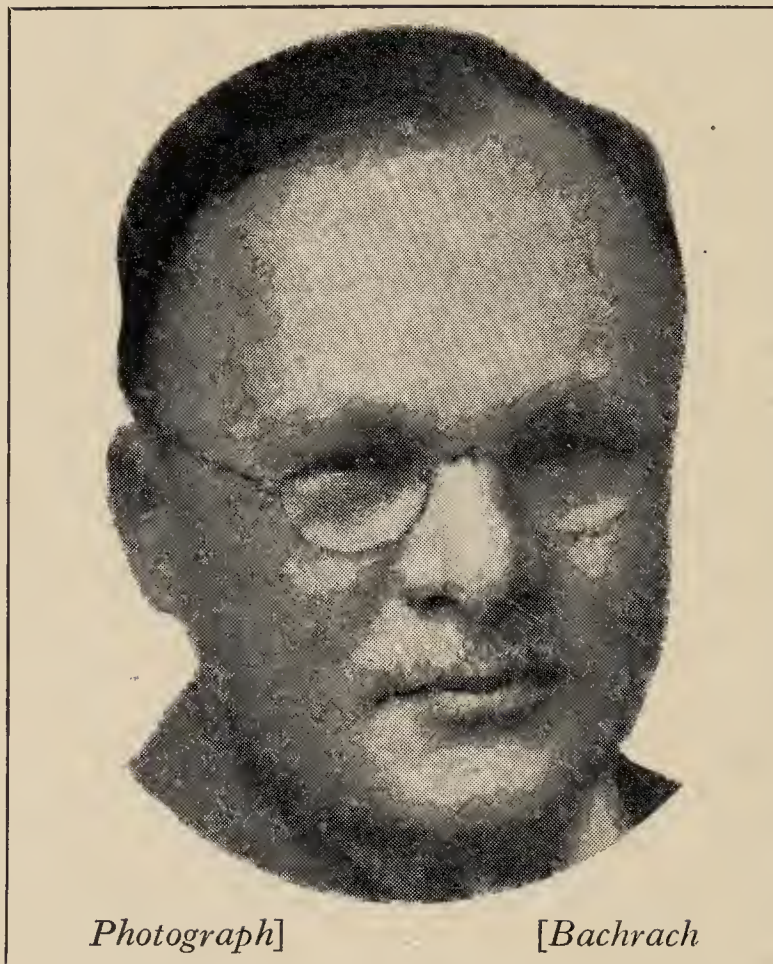
TEACHERS and educational administrators are not wholly incomparable to a physician whose patients never come back a second time. They give their prescription with suave confidence, for they are never bothered by knowledge of the outcome. Do their patients recover? Do they die? They will never know. So the same pellet is advised year after year.

In America, for example, eleven-year-old boys and girls are taught in their arithmetic lessons how to draw up promissory notes. I took them in 1888; my father assured me that he had them precisely on the dot in 1857; I have no doubt my grandfather was presented with the same recipe in 1822. Our schools, one sees, took promissory notes seriously. The trouble with my family is that it also took promissory notes seriously. As a matter of record, I should be superlatively better off at this moment if that prescription had been wholly omitted from the pedagogical pharmacopœia. Some of the family, in fact, have nearly died from it.

It still goes on, promissory notes at eleven. Why? In the early days of the country the farmer and small business folk, which made up the bulk of the pioneer population, had no money. Every venture was accordingly an adventure in credit. The promissory note loomed large as a most important instrument of civilization. No wonder the schools took it on. That time and need have gone, however. The vast populations in our schools will become wage and salaried persons. The promissory note will be as remote from their experiences as smoke houses and outside water pumps. At

this moment, however, three million eleven-year-old boys and girls are taking their daily spoonful of promissory notes. Some of these, indeed, will be denied further opportunities for education because they find the nostrum unpalatable, and therefore unswallowable.

Here are some samples of home assignments for twelve-year-old children, part of a huge selection gathered from various parts of the country. They represent the belief of school 'physicians' in a sure cure *via* book information:—



Memorize the percentage equivalents of  $\frac{1}{12}$ ,  $\frac{1}{9}$ ,  $\frac{1}{7}$ . What are the capitals of Turkey, Soviet Russia, Hungary?

Name the chief exports and imports of Barcelona.

Define *chyme*, *chyle*, *pylorus*, *lacteals*, *sacrum*.

How many furlongs in 180 yards?

In 1917 President Wilson decided to declare war upon Germany. Mark this statement true or false.

Trace the course of the Dneiper river.

List Grant's chief qualities as a general.

In an eighth grade class-room not so long ago I was interested in seeing a vigorous old lady setting examples of cube root before her pupils. 'Cube root!' I expressed mild surprise. 'Cube root has been out of the grades and promoted to the high school these many years.' She replied with beauteous forbearance, 'I know it is no longer in the elementary course of study, but'—a perceptible increase of rigour—'these children shall not be deprived of cube root so long as I can stand before them as their teacher!'

## II

A few children thrive on a diet of isolated information. Many, however, find the fare not



only indigestible but tasteless and repellent. From hundreds of first-hand transcriptions of classroom procedures I present this picture:—

I have been a teacher long enough to know how to keep the forty-five boys of my eighth grade class at attention for the five hours of each day on a prescribed course of study. They must remember enough of Irving's essay on *Westminster Abbey* to answer a possible examination question prepared by the folks up above (made to test me and keep me in line); they must be able to define *premium*, *par value*, *integer*, and *ad valorem*; they must understand the workings of the Federal Reserve Bank and the theory of the tariff (who does?); they must be able to write and answer a formal invitation to a formal dinner dance. And so on and so on. Besides, they must keep in mind, for examination purposes, the 'facts' of their previous years of schooling: the explorations of Martin Frobisher and Jacques Cartier, the history of the Dred Scott case, the exact title and author of a half hundred 'Memory Gems'. And so on and so on.

Hardly one of these boys cares a straw. They are sullenly waiting for the months to pass until they are old enough to get working certificates. It is a tough neighbourhood with little respect for law. I hardly dare turn my vigilant eye from the class. We do not give them ink; they might throw it out the window—not through maliciousness but out of healthy resistance to our senseless imprisonment. Naturally they should have a different course of study, but in our town all eighth grades have the same prescription. They should have manual work. There should be an attempt to get at their real interest in life and living and *begin from there*. The hard pressure which we bring to bear is social poison. What chance have I to make them eventually respectful toward law and order?

Here is a teacher with a critical attitude toward the usual prescription. The mass, however, is not so critical. The teacher with a vested interest in his 'subject' has little misgivings as to its ultimate curative properties. Certainly he would never call his work 'social poison'. Our greatest compliment is to say of such a one, 'He may be hard, but he knows his subject'. One may justly question that. His possession is not to be labelled by the fine name of scholarship; what he has learned by rote is, really, only text-book information. The proof is that while he may know his book perfectly—the recitation drills over many years would give anybody that easy acquisition—the world does not really believe that he knows anything particularly useful. From the raising of puppies to the purchase of a bond we would not go to such a teacher for any living

knowledge. His vested interest lies solely in a book prepared for the understanding of children; and outside the schoolroom he does not practise his subject. If he is a teacher of school chemistry, for instance, we do not find him also a practising chemist nor one engaged in chemical research. Though he treat of the basic knowledge of industry in his classroom, industry would not think of calling upon him for consultation or advice.

He accepts book information without question because he has no daily experience by which it might be refuted or amended. Therefore his 'facts' are often false facts. I watched an angry 'book teacher' pace his small platform before a silent and subdued class. 'How often have I told you', he began menacingly, 'that neuter nouns *never* take the possessive case!' Then more menacingly, 'I see you need drill. Take this assignment for Monday's lesson'. *Monday's* lesson, note! Ah, thought I, here is another *love's* labour lost; and I wondered if he had ever been at his *wit's* end or had come within a *hair's* breadth of anything practical. His business is language, remember, and language is all about him, rich in discovery of law and usage, but he had, like his kind, preferred to open a book and close his mind to life.

### III

For our work in logic we were compelled in my day to memorize the long Latin verses beginning, '*Barbara, celarent, darii, ferioque*'. However, in my very first lecture in logic at Harvard later, Josiah Royce dismissed that learning as 'a silly bit of useless mental lumber'.

The useless lumber is still piled up in the classroom. The prize of my collection, brought to me by an exasperated mother, is a 'home work' assignment which demanded the strict memorization of the ten moons of Saturn—a knowledge of which no doubt, learned reader, you would not be for a moment without—Mimas, Enceladus, Tethys, Rhea, Titan, Hyperion, Iapetus, Phoebe, Themis and Dione!

Recently I looked into a grammar room where a bewildered twelve-year-old was trying to explain the difference between an English gerund and an English gerundive. The principal of the school joined us; he watched kindly while the boy floundered about and finally dropped



into his seat defeated and disconsolate.

I turned to ask, 'Why, in these enlightened days, do you allow such useless hair splittings?'

'Secondary School Board Examinations', he explained. 'The boy's parents insist that he go to a college preparatory school which requires that and a hundred other "facts" equally obsolete.'

The principal was an honest man. He would not pretend to a boy that he believed something which he knew to be untrue. 'Charles', he said with a warming smile, 'you are no worse off than I, for I'm blessed if I know myself what is the difference between an English gerund and an English gerundive!'

Some grammar teachers grow very angry when I suggest that gerund and gerundive are not worth bothering small children about. So I quote from an almost unimpeachable authority, Fowler's *Modern English Usage*: 'Gerundive is of importance only in languages which possess the thing, *of which English does not happen to be one*. Gerundive has accordingly no proper function in English grammar.'

The small boy did not know. The principal was honest enough to admit that he did not know. Now comes Professor Fowler of Oxford who claims that nobody knows!

#### IV

During the past twenty-five years a quiet, almost unheralded revolt against this senseless cramming process has been going on in America within the ranks of sensitive, intelligent parents.

The revolvers went deliberately to work to build their own schools and to acquire their own staffs. Within a decade or two these and similar groups of parents in various parts of this country had contributed over twenty millions of dollars toward the education of their own children. The small-salaried professional person joined with his wealthier neighbours, making huge sacrifices, as I know from long acquaintance with this movement, but cheered by the thought that he could give his children an education freed from senseless daily torture

and, at the same time, alive with the chance of healthy educational growth.

Of enormous significance to public education, the leaders of this quiet movement have dared to expose their own children to a practical application of the best modern thinking in education. They have deliberately cast off the theory of salvation solely by book-information and have substituted a faith in the native desire of childhood for genuine learning, faith in its abilities, in its fine ambition to achieve, in its undoubted high ideals.

For that faith they have had ample justification. The normal child, they have proved, is a natural hard worker. He is eager to know and to study. He will bend himself willingly to drudgery, as do all sensible adults when the end is comprehended as profitable and worthy. He has taste and judgment and will grow in the possession of these desirables if given the right chances. His ideals, when properly brought out in a sympathetic environment, put us practical and compromising elders to daily shame.

#### V

'Our finest hope is finest memory', sings one of the greatest of English women. Think what warm, live, and pregnant associations might have been put into the mysterious spirit-mind of youth instead of the dry verbal dust of forgotten distinctions of the pedants. Listen for a moment to Walter Pater:—

'How significant . . . the influences of the sensible things which are tossed and fall and lie about us, so or so, in the environment of early childhood. How indelibly, as we afterward discover, they affect us; with what capricious attractions and associations they figure themselves on . . . the smooth wax of our ingenious soul, giving form and feature and, as it were, assigned house-room in our memory to early experiences of feeling and thought, *which abide with us ever afterwards*. thus, and not otherwise'.

When one thinks of the warring attack of the school pedant on the 'ingenious soul' of youth, a daily, never-ending battle spread over the wide world, a lingering wistful consideration intrudes of what might otherwise be done with that 'finest hope' that lies in 'finest memory'.



# Studying the Personality and Social Adjustment of the Child

RACHEL STUTSMAN, Ph.D.

THE measurement of personality is a new field, though judgments of personal characteristics are certainly as old as man himself, since it is natural for man to size up his fellow-creatures. Whenever two or more persons are assembled together comparisons are made and the judgments are more or less in order. It is the purpose of those who wish to bring exactness to bear upon the study of the lives of men to make possible finer methods of measurement than these crude, though often true, judgments which men are accustomed to make of one another.

One of the first human characteristics to yield to more precise and scientific methods was intelligence. Recently other human traits have been studied in much the same way. Elaborate tests have been made of honesty and trustworthiness, etc. Most of these have been adapted to the testing of older children or adults, and not to that of the little child, though the little child is the only one who enters the test situation without the handicap of knowing that it is a test, and so is in some ways the best of subjects. There have been relatively few tests developed to evaluate the personality traits which differentiate the responses of one child from those of another.

One test which has proved both useful and illuminating is the Marston Introversion-Extroversion test. Marston here sets up several situations through which he studies the direction the social reactions of young children take, particularly as to whether they tend to be introverted and expressed inwardly, or extroverted and expressed outwardly. Each of the children, in this test, is put through a series of five situations, called games. While this series of tests was being given to the children, Marston had their teachers observing them and scoring them on a series of ratings covering the same traits. Significantly, he found a high agreement between the ratings made by these teachers and the results of the tests. There has therefore been

a tendency to use the rating scale instead of the test situations, since it requires less time and work.

Rating scales are favoured in studying personality traits. They vary from very simple forms to fairly complex ones.

A personality rating scale we have found useful in our work with the nursery school children at the Merrill-Palmer School has five main headings—Effective Energy, Mental Effectiveness, Emotional Control, Ease of Social Adjustment, and Skill in Work and Play. Under each of these there are twenty statements giving, when scored, a fairly complete description of the child's development in the trait. Under the heading 'Effective Energy', for example, there is the following list of statements:—

- ( ) Skilful in body control; good co-ordination.
- ( ) Weak and frail.
- ( ) Vigorous and energetic in his attack of a project.
- ( ) Sturdy, strong, robust.
- ( ) Awkward in bodily movements, poor co-ordination.
- ( ) Attacks work with little vigour; gentle.
- ( ) Independent (considering age); self-reliant.
- ( ) Slow, without force, spiritless.
- ( ) Voice lacking in animation; lifeless.
- ( ) Adventurous; challenged by the untried.
- ( ) Participates in activity.
- ( ) Dependent; asks help of others.
- ( ) Physically vigorous; alert; energetic.
- ( ) Becomes fatigued easily.
- ( ) Usually stands around watching others, doing nothing himself.
- ( ) Fails to complete a task if obstacles arise.
- ( ) Over-cautious, not venturesome, afraid to attempt the untried.
- ( ) Nearly always accomplishes task in spite of difficulties.
- ( ) Voice animated, alive.
- ( ) Does not become fatigued easily.

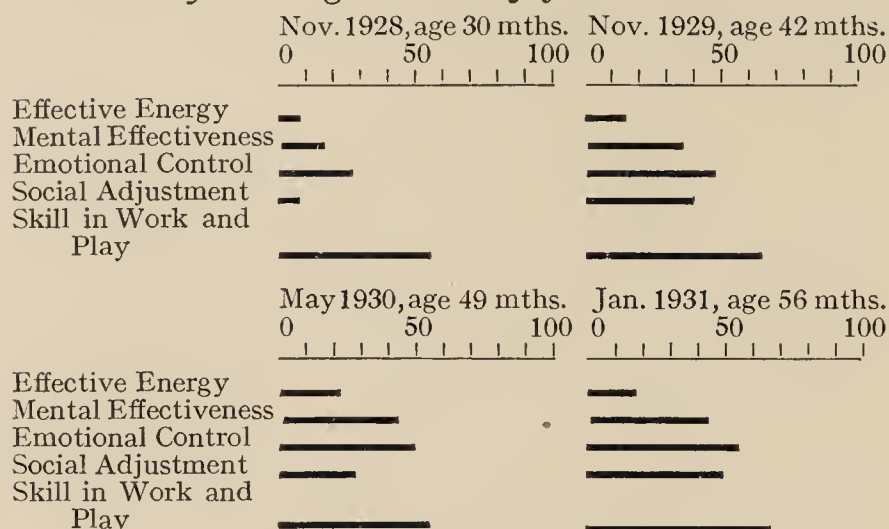
This series of statements is checked by the five observers, teachers and others, who see the child most and know him best. The average of the five ratings is taken as the child's score in any one trait.

Sample charts of four successive ratings of a



child will show the use of the scale in revealing and recording development. Brief explanatory notes are given in each case.

### Personality Rating Summary for B. L.



B.L., a little girl, is quiet and rather retiring, but extremely intelligent. It is interesting to note the progress she makes in social adjustment during the period of observation, though she continues to remain relatively low in effective energy.

Another method we are finding of value in studying the changes in children's adjustment comprises a series of lists of specific statements, each list descriptive of a more general trait. The scale value of these statements has been determined by a rather complex statistical process. The score values of all statements checked by the rater as characteristic of the child are added together and the average is taken as a rating on the trait considered. The general traits specifically analysed in this way at present include the following: Independence of adult affection or attention; tendency to face reality; ascendance-submission; attractiveness of personality; physical attractiveness; sociability with other children; respect for property rights; response to authority.

To illustrate, the statements under the trait 'response to authority' are given, with the score value of each statement noted. It will be observed that the statements with low scale value are those tending to show non-compliance with authority; those having high scale values, those tending to show compliance.

RESPONSE TO AUTHORITY.	Scale Value.
( ) Attempts to change conversation from suggested activity to other channels...	17
( ) Adds co-operative additions to the suggestion ... ..	39
( ) Resistant even against suggestion ...	3
( ) Planned evasion ... ..	6

	Scale Value.
( ) Proud of his co-operation ... ..	35
( ) Lags in following suggestion ... ..	18
( ) Responds without undue delay to authority ... ..	34
( ) Cries if has to submit to authority ...	5
( ) Runs away if called ... ..	4
( ) Comes quickly if called ... ..	42
( ) Thinks of immediate arguments as to why he shouldn't do suggested activity ... ..	10
( ) Contemplates legitimate suggestion long time before doing it ... ..	25
( ) Resists when required to do something new ... ..	9
( ) Says 'No' but does suggested activity	31
( ) Says 'Yes' but doesn't do suggested activity ... ..	13
( ) Frowns, shrugs shoulders, pouts, or stamps foot when suggestion made	7
( ) Resistant only when in a particular mood ... ..	23
( ) Pretends not to hear ... ..	11
( ) So absorbed in own thoughts that doesn't comprehend ... ..	28
( ) Defiant against authority ... ..	3
( ) Accepts any command without question ... ..	44
( ) Experimentation with new authority to see how far he can go ... ..	21
( ) Rebels physically: temper-tantrum, hitting, kicking, etc. ... ..	1
( ) Pretended absorption to evade suggestion ... ..	12
( ) Co-operative and responsible ... ..	38
( ) Child tries to get task done by the person who suggests it ... ..	20
( ) Follows suggestion only while teacher is in sight ... ..	14
( ) Resists if suggestion is not about the things he has planned himself ...	16

In the evaluation of these responses no attempt is made to say whether the trait is a good one or a bad one, but merely how it is shown. A chart showing the variations in responsiveness to authority of two children over a period of seven months will indicate the use which can be made of such material in analysing the changes taking place in the adjustment of the child.

### J. M.

An inspection of the chart of J. M. shows a consistent downward tendency. What factors enter into the life of the child to cause this change? J. M. is one of the younger nursery school children. She entered in October, the first month recorded on the chart, at 21 months of age. At that time she showed great interest in everything and adjusted rapidly to the school situation. Toward the last of November the records say, 'J. M. is showing a



tendency to be negative, and is a little defiant when asked to do things'. At this time there were also reports of toilet accidents. She continued to show good adjustment to the children and to many school situations. Analysis of the records shows that the new items added to the checking by the teachers are such statements as, 'So absorbed in own thoughts that doesn't comprehend', 'Resists if the suggestion is not about the thing she has

planned herself', 'Resistant only when in a particular mood'. Her decrease in responsiveness to authority was explained at least in part by the fact that she was developing a habit of concentration and resented any interference that interrupted her activity. The same situation largely explained the toilet accidents. She showed a constant tendency toward the development of independence and self-reliance in making decisions.



Chart showing fluctuations in response to authority in two children

### P. H.

The chart of P. H., on the contrary, with the exception of one downward fluctuation, shows a tendency to go up. P. H., a boy, was 3 years, 5 months old at the time of the first observation recorded in October. He was in a nursery school with a group of children younger than himself. Though he was below average in his adjustment to authority during the first month or so of this period, he was not openly rebellious. By the age of 3 years 7 months, however, he had become so unruly and infantile that he was transferred to a group of older nursery school children. His infantile reversions were no doubt partly attributable to the fact that he had a new baby brother who had become the centre of attention in the home where he had formerly ruled supreme as the only child. This change of school and the example of the older children have apparently been effective in gradually changing his response to authority to a much higher level.

In the research in this field of personality study many elaborate methods have been

worked out in an endeavour to determine the types of observations that should be made and their probable significance in our understanding of human development and relationships.

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THE TRIAL OF CHARLOTTE CORDAY

*Scene from Episode 5 of the pageant 'Towards Brotherhood' which showed  
 'A noble cause perverted by mankind.  
 In France, oppressed man proclaims his right  
 To liberty and brotherhood, but seeks  
 By violence to gain that peaceful end'*



TOWARDS BROTHERHOOD

*Scene in the 'Thought World' in which the allegorical figure, Man-the-Builder, dreams of  
 the Good Neighbour*



# First Steps to Freedom

## Towards Brotherhood

AMY F. PURVIS

IT was in an attempt to use drama as a means of provoking thought about world citizenship in the minds of girls aged sixteen to seventeen years that a pageant involving the 120 pupils of a girls' school took shape.

We began with informal talks at the lunch hour and other odd moments, and in all sorts of odd corners, about the forces and desires which lead men to co-operate, and, contrarily, the disruptive forces and instincts of self-assertion and self-aggrandizement which tend to divide men. The next step was to make lists of these and then began a reading and searching out of world events and movements which seemed to show mankind slowly struggling forward, with many a backward step, towards brotherhood. Finally came the decision to present in dramatic form a number of these 'episodes' linked together by a series of allegorical scenes, supposed to take place in the thought-world, and forming a commentary on the historical scenes.

Up to this point the discussions as to plan and subject-matter had been mainly carried on among the girls in the two senior forms, but now we decided to tell the school about it and invite co-operation. It was then that we began to learn how pleasant it is to talk and read about brotherhood and how very difficult it is to practise it. Some forms found they could not write their own scenes, so commissioned others to write them for them, and then did not approve of the result—which sweet unreasonableness greatly offended the proud authors. The forms which were given the allegorical scenes to work out quarrelled sadly among themselves, for, alas, there was great competition for the parts of Spite, Envy and All-Uncharitableness but no enthusiasm to play the parts of Sympathy, Tolerance and the other spiritual graces. Dilatory makers of verse, and people who were always having fresh brainwaves, put a severe strain on the school's stock of patience and forbearance, but the fact that the pageant was at

last harmoniously produced proves that brotherhood can grow even in the most unpromising conditions.

As drama the final result was a slight affair, but all the teachers concerned agreed that the term's work that preceded the production was a valuable one, not only because of the ideas generated and knowledge acquired, but also, and perhaps chiefly, because of the experience in communal thinking and doing which it had afforded.

The following extracts are illustrative of the speeches in verse composed and spoken by the young performers:

From the Prologue spoken by Father Time:

'I, even I, who am the president  
Of the great pageant of the Universe,  
Step from the heights this day but to preside  
O'er this, a mimic pageant, which doth seek  
To show the rising of that wondrous tide  
Sweeping towards brotherhood, And you shall  
mark,  
As I, through centuries, have seen and marked  
The counter currents and the favouring winds  
That helped or marred its progress. Then forth-  
with  
We shall commence.—Let there be no delay.  
'Time waits for no man.—On with the Masque,  
I say!'

Father Time prophesies before Episode VII, which is a vision of the future:

'Thus far mankind through the dark, shadowed  
vale  
Has passed. Wandering, first he went.  
Each wayfarer his fellow-traveller feared  
And, terrified, sought to destroy those men  
Whom, fearing less, he surely would have loved.  
But now afar the morning star doth shine,  
The star of Peace, which is to man a guide  
Through the dark shades of tumults and of wars.

And now, the sought-for goal at last in sight,  
Man shall pursue his course with bolder steps,  
Until the guiding star itself is lost  
In the bright day of love and brotherhood.  
So, we have shown the struggle heretofore,  
What next we see is yet to come to pass.'



# Parent-Teacher Co-operation

VIRGINIA E. STONE

THAT the home and the school are the most important institutions for furthering the growth of childhood has long since been acknowledged as unquestionably true. However, means of effecting the co-operation of home and school have yet to be understood and perfected.

No longer do we assert that the child goes to school mainly to gain knowledge; that the work of the home is entirely that of teaching him to live with people honestly, sincerely and courteously; that the church prepares him solely for his spiritual existence.

With a modern belief that the general aim of education is the all-round development of childhood, we cease to cut the child's life into mental, physical, social, spiritual and emotional slices.

We realize that the whole child responds to every situation. At school he is not only learning that London is the capital of the British Empire; he is

gaining a like or dislike of geography as a subject and of his teacher as a person. He is gaining habits of attending to his job or of shirking it. He is becoming a contributing, or a disturbing member of a social group.

At home the child who is assuming his part of the daily chores is perhaps doing a great deal of thinking as he organizes or shirks his work, and there may be an emotional attitude toward the entire situation. Even in church when he sings lustily on Sunday morning, he may be gaining or losing more than a spiritual joy in the activity.

That the whole child responds to most situations not only delegates a greater responsibility to the home, the school, the church, and the community, but it necessitates the co-operation of these various institutions in order that the growth to be furthered may not be one-sided or incomplete. The child gains or loses according to the extent to which his effective co-operation is engaged.

These institutions must co-operate so that

they may be working with the same child. Differing situations produce differing responses. A kindergarten child who played happily all day long, seeming to be the most beautifully adjusted of children, changed, day after day, upon the arrival of her mother to take her home, into a querulous, fussy, tyrannical little girl. The reverse may be true. A boy in one of our upper classes who had given much concern to his teacher showed himself a lovable, amenable child in his home. In both of these cases the home and the school conscientiously worked to gain the most effective response to the situation.

The transition from home to school should not be a hard one. The bare, barn-like schoolrooms of a decade ago are to-day rapidly being

supplanted by attractive, home-like rooms. The Community School, which is a private institute for children from four to twelve years of age, has

just completed the first unit of an additional building on a seventeen acre tract of land in the country.

One day a man came up to me as I entered the new school and asked: 'Are you the lady who is going to live in this house?' 'I am the head of this school', I replied. 'Oh! Is this a school? I thought it was a home.'

The natural atmosphere of an attractive home should be characteristic of schools for small children. Toys, games, childlike pictures, play equipment, the friendly spirit of a sympathetic teacher—all these are found in a modern school.

## *Unity of Belief in General Aims of the School*

For effective child growth the home and the school should believe in the same ideals and work together for achieving them. Usually both home and school would like to do this, but they are often unaware of the educational aims toward which they are tending.

*An American Solution of this  
most Important Problem.*



In the Community School the parents and teachers believe in common that the purpose of the school, in co-operation with the home, is to promote the continuous growth of the child through an increasingly rich and full life as a member of a social group: that through child interest and activity we lead gradually into subject matter, which is taught consistently in each class, so that without forcing the learning of such subjects as reading, writing, and arithmetic, the school is able to meet class standards in tool subjects, such as spelling and arithmetic, and to go far beyond what is expected in content subjects, such as reading, history and geography: that well trained teachers, proper equipment, a carefully planned health programme, provision for co-operative living, a flexible daily programme, beautiful surroundings, all lead to an environment conducive to growth: that the school, as a vital part of the environment of growth, aims to produce fine, well-rounded, wholesome boys and girls.

We also believe that teachers and children should be friends. The child is taught to obey in essentials, but is given as much freedom of choice as he can use wisely. Freedom includes responsibility, and in a world where freedom is often poorly used it is the duty of the school to teach children its wise use.

*Unity of Belief in Specific Aims* Not only must teachers and parents agree on the general aims of the school, but they must know the particular aims of each year. For example, this year the Community School has set as some of its particular aims :—

1. To improve the speech habits of children.
2. To bring into the school outside contacts which will widen the interests of children and lead to a better understanding of children of other lands. This seems the most natural approach to building international relationships.
3. To an improvement of the work in nature study and science. The present sixth grade is very much interested in making a small house which they built on the school grounds into a place where they may do some cooking. They are now planning a telegraphic connection between the classroom and this house.
4. To the use of children's hobbies in the sixth form. The teacher of the group is trying to use the outside interests of children as a part of our school work. The school doctor is planning some very serious work in a stamp club which is being

organized. A group are doing cooking. Another group is doing special work in nature study. Some boys are interested in the electro-magnet.

5. To the improvement in spelling. I suppose all schools are interested in the improvement of spelling. For two years we have studied our method of teaching spelling, and the fact that our children write a great deal gives them more chances for poor spelling than if they did the prescribed writing of a more formal school. We are now working on phonetics as an aid to the teaching of spelling.

*Means of Gaining Active Co-operation of Parents and Teachers* We have planned a number of ways in which teachers and

parents may work together. First, parents are encouraged to visit the school. These visits should, rightly speaking, be the natural, agreeable coming of parents to see what is being done in the school, not a response to the teacher's call for help in time of trouble. In Community School we pay little attention to parents. They come and go as they will, fathers and mothers coming often to spend the morning or to lunch, or perhaps all day. Of course, there are many special programmes, such as those at Thanksgiving and Christmas, which never fail to attract fathers. But more fruitful visiting is that in which a parent sits in the back of the room, watching a child's habits of work and his reaction to the group.

Second, in each group of parents we have a class chairman who is selected because of leadership in the group. This provides a person to whom a teacher can go for discussion of class problems, not in methods of teaching, but in the many contacts which the school has with the community.

Third, we plan parent meetings. Each autumn the teacher of a class, with her chairman, plans a group meeting at which the aims of that year and the particular needs of that class are discussed. Since these meetings are in the afternoon, they are composed largely of mothers. However, we believe strongly that we should have the active co-operation of fathers as well as mothers in the development of children.

Last year the first form had some meetings at an hour when fathers could come. Also, in the third form one father planned a soccer game in which the fathers played the children. The fathers won, but I am hoping that the sixth form will challenge the fathers of that group, and



I am not so sure of the success of the fathers.

Later in the year we have meetings at night, where the teachers talk to the fathers and mothers about the work of each form, and an exhibit of the children's work is shown.

In addition to these small meetings there are large general meetings. Our annual dinner brings together the entire group. We have each year some speakers other than teachers to help and inspire us. This year Mrs. Beatrice Ensor spoke to us on the value of an international viewpoint.

We also accomplish the united aim of teachers and parents by specific work with individual children. We have conferences with parents instead of sending reports. We chart the results of the achievements tests which we give twice a year, and these are given to the parents. In addition there is a chance for a discussion of the individual needs of the child.

Often other individual conferences are necessary. Sometimes the psychologist, who is a member of the school staff, or the doctor, is called in. From a discussion of a particular situation we try to leave a parent with the principle involved in that situation as a guide to future conduct.

These joint conferences are often used to build within the child a needed responsibility for his own acts. We can help a child to help himself by trying to lead him to assume as much responsibility as he can for doing a better job. Conferences with children and teachers, and children and parents have led children gradually to assume more responsibility where it is needed. For example, a boy who talked incessantly, monopolizing far too much of a teacher's time, and who was a braggard on the playground, was asked to report to me at the end of a week as to (1) how well he refrained from talking at the lunch table and (2) how amicably he accepted the place assigned to him on the playing field. At the end of the week we asked him to assume more responsibility for quiet control in the classroom and for reducing the amount of bragging on the playground. At the end of three weeks he is feeling a sense of satisfaction in his increased popularity, with the children and in the approval of his teachers. He is building strength in place of the insecurity which is usually a motive for boasting.

In setting a time for a child to report to me or to his teacher or his parents, I am trying to give him a feeling of his own responsibility, not only to himself but to someone else who believes he can accomplish what he sets out to do, and who holds him to the responsibility he has assumed. A very young child may report to his teacher every day.

### *Creating an Environment for Wholesome Living*

The school and the home must combine efforts to insure an environment of wholesome living. Children should lead quiet, serene lives, well habituated as to sleep, food and proper recreation. Talks by the school doctor emphasize the type of food and the amount of rest necessary for child growth. The cinema and the radio are deviations from the habituated life which often disturb a child's normal existence.

The music and art of homes give an interesting contribution to the music and art of schools. We have a committee on music composed of parents of musical ability who plan for musical programmes in the school.

There is also an art committee which plans each year for different artists to come into the school and paint or model with the children. One artist models with them, letting them have a part in whatever she is making. A maker of batiks comes often to do work of her own or to criticize what the children are doing. When one of the classes was making linoleum block prints a nationally known artist, who is the parent of a child in the school, made for them a block print of such beauty that it has served as an ideal of what can be accomplished by an artist in this type of work.

In building the new school one parent was in charge of a decorating committee, another assumed the responsibility for the kitchen; one man planned and carried out the landscaping of the spacious grounds.

These are some of the ways in which parents and teachers are growing together for a common aim, planning an environment of normal, wholesome living in home and school, with fine ideals in teaching and living with children, the home and school co-operating for a greater conservation of child energy, child honesty, and child development.



# The Dalton Plan

ARNOLD C. LYNCH

ALLOW me to present my credentials. I attended West Green School for several months before, and for several years after, the Dalton Plan was established there. Since then I have attended a secondary school of moderate size, and have been duly pushed through the General and Higher Schools Examinations. Consequently, I have had varied experience of educational systems—the Dalton Plan, a rigid class system, and also the compromise between class and individual work used in the senior forms of the secondary school; and I should be speaking with some knowledge of the facts if I were to pronounce either for or against the Dalton Plan. This, however, I shall not be rash enough to do; I shall attempt merely to give the various arguments on each side as they appear to me. I cannot say whether the Dalton Plan has been of assistance to me, because there is no way of telling what would have happened if I had not worked under it.

Unfortunately, it would serve very little purpose, even if it were possible, to make a direct comparison of the various systems. The circumstances—by which are meant such matters as size of classes, attainments, and so forth—vary so much as to vitiate any conclusion that might be drawn. Apart from that, this inquiry is not concerned with the application of the Dalton Plan to secondary schools. These reservations must be borne in mind throughout what follows.

Probably the outstanding advantage of the plan, to teacher and pupil alike, is the avoidance of waste of time. There can be no doubt that in a rigidly organized class where the teacher sets the pace, the work is done badly both by fast and slow workers: by the former because, having no use for the detailed explanations made

for the benefit of the slower workers, they allow their attention to wander; and by the latter from sheer inability to follow the lesson. The teacher naturally dislikes this waste of time; and so do the pupils, not only because they feel that they might be doing something useful, but also because there are few things so irritating as to do nothing for five minutes under the eagle eye of a teacher. Under the Dalton Plan this trouble is overcome, for as a general rule even the shortest period may be usefully occupied.

There is, however, an attendant drawback to the Dalton Plan in this respect. Since there is no upper limit to the speed at which the work may

be covered, there soon develops a moderately keen competition to get in front of the rest of the class. This may be a thoroughly healthy thing in itself; but the inevitable result is hurried and inferior work. Particularly blatant examples of this can be checked by the respective subject-masters,

and this is done as a matter of course; but no absolute limit can be defined, and what occurs in practice is that the work is of the minimum standard which, in its author's opinion, will satisfy the master concerned. This is excellent training for the world of business, but poor education.

Whether competition in scholastic matters is desirable I do not know; and, indeed, I know of no system which can eliminate it entirely; but it seems to me that this is a most undesirable aspect of it, and has exactly the opposite effect to that usually claimed for the Plan. By way of contrast, consider the scheme of marks used in the secondary school of my experience. Here the competition, carefully fostered by those in authority, has the opposite effect; and, although the system is carried to ludicrous excess, the total marks obtainable in a term being over

*A dispassionate account of the merits and demerits of the Plan by a young student who has been educated both under it and under more conventional methods.*



2,000, it succeeds in its primary object, and competition is to produce the best work, not most work.

Consequently when we approach what is, after all, the most important question—whether work is done better under the Dalton Plan—we find a great deal that is doubtful. There is certainly greater opportunity to produce good written work, but whether full advantage is taken of it must depend very largely on the pupils, who are not all angels. At West Green School, and I suppose at thousands of similarly-situated schools, it is the ambition of nine boys out of ten to leave. Many are interested only in doing sufficient work to avoid being ‘kept in’. With boys of this type the Dalton Plan, like most other plans, must be at any rate a partial failure. Others, as suggested above, will wish merely to get in front, and are unfortunately encouraged to do so.

The honourable exceptions will certainly make use of their opportunities; and for those of suitable temperament the Plan has great advantages. There is also to be borne in mind that any really interesting work will arouse the attention of even the slackest pupils. A large part of the normal curriculum can, I fear, never be made interesting to those who have to study it; but a little originality in its presentation will work wonders, and there is always room for this originality on the part of Dalton Plan teachers. Interest aroused in this way is far better than that obtained by compulsion, and, although it cannot be claimed as an exclusive feature of the Dalton Plan, it is given every opportunity of occurring in Dalton work.

There is, of course, a fundamental difference between the work produced under the two systems. The older system relies to a large extent on oral instruction from the master, the Dalton Plan on the reading of books accompanied by a large amount of written work. This emphasis on written work amounts, of course, to putting a premium on English as by far the most important subject, since it will arise incidentally in both history and geography. It appears that at least three-quarters of the pupils’ time is spent on English of one sort or another, and the remainder chiefly on arithmetic. Some may consider this a fair arrangement, but it seems to me to be disproportionate.

It means that those weak in English are handicapped also in their study of history and geography: and this is not a hypothetical case, for I remember boys starting the Dalton Plan at the age of eleven who could read only with difficulty.

It remains to consider whether the work is better remembered under the Dalton Plan. By this I do not mean whether it is remembered until an examination in the following week, but whether it is remembered permanently. It is of little use to present theoretical arguments in this matter: but quoting from personal experience I should say that the memory is more retentive of work done under the Dalton Plan. In the case of history—definitely a weak subject of mine—1485, from which date the Dalton syllabus commenced, stands out as a division between uncharted wastes whose history I have forgotten completely and the period of whose history I remember about as much as most people of my age. As for my arithmetic—in which I was rather stronger—this I found was less affected by the change in methods; but, as certain difficulties have arisen in connection with arithmetic under the Dalton Plan, probably this means little. Considering mere memory work, such as the memorizing of poetry, which anyone can do well if he has sufficient time, I find that individual work is almost a necessity. I remember an attempt made to teach a class a passage of Scripture during a class lesson. The method was for the master to read it line by line, and the class to repeat it together two or three times. Of it I can remember only that the sheep were to go to the right hand and the goats to the left; unfortunately, I have forgotten entirely the context and the source. On the other hand, poems I learnt under the Dalton Plan at about the same time I can still remember fairly well.

Certain advantages which may be termed ‘social’ are claimed for the Dalton Plan; the formation of character, contact with one’s fellows, and so on. I am by nature sceptical of all such intangible matters; but it must be confessed that there is something to be said for their existence. The mere fact of the free mixing of perhaps 200 boys must make some difference to them. Unfortunately, there is no means of testing what this difference is, and discussion of



it can serve little purpose. There is, however, a spirit of comradeship which is encouraged when a class is not anchored to arbitrarily disposed desks throughout long periods. This is noticeable among those doing practical work in physics or chemistry at a secondary school. In, at any rate, the advanced stages of this, there is a close approximation to Dalton Plan conditions: a great deal of freedom, no imposed rate of work, mutual help in case of difficulty, and the teacher's presence in the background only.

It is claimed for the Dalton Plan that it engenders self-reliance. With this I most heartily disagree. A habit is easily formed (and officially encouraged) of taking every difficulty, however trivial, to the teacher for solution. There is no incentive to work at a baffling problem; in fact, since it wastes time, it is most undesirable to do so. It is a habit which I formed myself, and out of which I have never been able to grow. It is the very negation of self-reliance, and why the contrary claim is made is a mystery to me. Not merely have I seen this in practice, but it should be predictable from a brief consideration of the facts. When the teacher does not expect to give individual attention, the pupil is more likely to do things for himself—or not to do them at all. In the latter case, however, his self-reliance will still be called into play when he has to account for his lack of knowledge.

I have so far ignored the question of examinations. They are admittedly not catered for by the Dalton Plan. This is not primarily because the Plan is not designed to instil the maximum of text-book knowledge in the minimum of time, but because it does not cover a fixed syllabus in the way that an examination requires. When a candidate may be at any point in a year's work it seems unfair to make him take an examination which will either ignore all his latest work or assume that he has done a certain amount of work which in point of fact he has not.

In spite of this the Dalton Plan is quite a good preparation for an examination: for, although the entire syllabus may not have been covered the part which has been done has been done thoroughly. In most examinations it is possible to pass by knowing half the syllabus really well

instead of having a smattering of the whole. This is, of course, regarding it from the narrowest possible point of view; for as a general rule it is better to know something about everything rather than everything about something.

In one respect the Dalton Plan offers excellent preparation for an examination: the constant practice in the writing of answers to questions is the best possible training that a candidate could have. Whatever may be thought about the preponderance of written work in the ordinary course of events, there can be no doubt that it is exactly what is necessary to prepare intensively for a written examination. This, though, cannot fairly be claimed as an advantage of the Dalton Plan, which is designed rather to ensure a good general education.

So far I have considered the Dalton Plan as it appears to me now. I will attempt to give briefly my opinion as it would have been at the time when I was at West Green School.

I liked it for its freedom and its variety. To be able to choose my subjects in any order I pleased, was a great joy; and it was pleasant to be able to turn to a subject such as geography as a relief from a long spell at, say, English. It appeared to me as a disadvantage that, when a month's work was nearly completed, there was of necessity little choice of subject; but I suppose that as a matter of organization this was unavoidable. I liked to look ahead in the assignments for a month or two; and the sight of attractive-looking work to come generally caused a marked acceleration in my progress! Nothing made for stagnation so much as a collection of uninviting exercises blocking the way.

It would not have been a fair question to ask me then to give an opinion on the Plan. I knew too little of the alternative, and could not have known what good either would be to me. I know better now, but still I shall not venture a decided opinion. I do not believe one answer can cover all cases. In some circumstances the Plan may be a success (I think it is at West Green School); in others it may fail. Every case must be considered on its own merits; and I hope that the preceding discussion can be taken as an unbiased, albeit somewhat critical, aid to any such consideration.



# Getting World Knowledge

## A Scheme of Work for School Societies (continued)

THE second group of activities suggested by the League of Nations Union in its new Scheme of Work for Junior Branches is headed 'World Knowledge'. The following will be eligible to receive Record of Service Cards:—

*For Stage I.*

Children who:

- (1) Can show in written answers to questions, supplemented by picture books they have compiled, that they have an elementary knowledge of the main aims and some of the chief activities of the League of Nations, such as the settlement of international disputes, health work, the prevention of opium traffic and the improvement of conditions of labour—especially in regard to the employment of children;
- (2) Can similarly show that they are familiar with the life story of at least one hero of peace.

*For Stage II.*

Boys and girls over thirteen years of age who have completed the work for Stage I, and have:

- (1) Studied satisfactorily the Covenant of the League of Nations;
- (2) Compiled books of classified press cuttings on international affairs including, if possible, cuttings from foreign periodicals.

At the end of *Stage III*, Record of Service Cards will only be awarded to those who can:

- (1) Give satisfactory proof of an understanding and knowledge of international affairs such as may be acquired by the study of certain prescribed books and documents;
- (2) Pass a formal examination on the aims, organization and activities of the League of Nations (including the Assembly, Council, Secretariat, International Labour Organization and Permanent Court of International Justice).

In each section (International Friendship, World Knowledge and League Service) a high standard of attainment will be expected in Stage III. Indeed, it is hoped that the new scheme will prove attractive just because it does offer a hard piece of work worth doing. It is proposed that those who qualify for the Record of Service Cards at the end of Stage III should be admitted into three Orders of Service: the Nansen Order for International Friendship, the Wilson Order for World Knowledge and the Cecil Order for League Service.

The Union hopes to bring the complete scheme into operation at the beginning of the summer term, and many schools have already started work in connection with it.

*(To be continued.)*

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# International Notes

## New Education Fellowship News

**MR. A. J. LYNCH, J.P.**, has been persuaded to join Headquarters staff. He is well known as Headmaster of the West Green School, Tottenham, where for a number of years he has carried out a successful experiment in the adoption of Dalton principles. He is author of *Individual Work and the Dalton Plan*, *Rise and Progress of the Dalton Plan*, and joint author of *The Next Step in Education*, and *The Case for the Nursery School*, and editor of *The Senior and Junior Individual Work Series*. His admirable work, both as schoolmaster and author, has brought him in touch with many people not only in Great Britain but also on the Continent, and he has lectured by invitation in Denmark, Norway, Esthonia and Germany. Mr. Lynch is retiring from his headmastership this May and we feel very fortunate in having secured his services on Headquarters staff. He will undertake lecturing for us as well as courses for teachers on modern methods of education, in Great Britain and other countries. He may possibly visit America next autumn on our behalf.

**NICE CONFERENCE.**—The Organizing Director, Mrs. Ensor, and the Assistant Director, Mr. Rawson, have just visited Paris, Geneva and Nice in connection with the International Conference organization. Mr. Rawson will proceed to Milan, Berlin, Hamburg and Brussels to consult with a number of important members of the Fellowship on matters concerning the programme.

**SCOTLAND.**—The Organizing Director will be in Scotland from 12th to 23rd March and will address meetings in Glasgow, Edinburgh, St. Andrews, Linlithgow, Kirkcaldy and Kilmarnock.

**NORTHERN IRELAND.**—There is a flourishing group of the N.E.F. in Northern Ireland. Sir Richard Livingstone is President and there are seventy members. In the ten years since the Ministry of Education of Northern Ireland has taken over the work, State education has been forging ahead. Many new schools have been transferred to its control, regional Education Committees have been set up, and there is a fine training college for teachers.

Among interesting experiments made by members of the N.E.F. the following may be mentioned:

1. *The First Rural College Scheme in Ireland at Limavady.*

The area of the land acquired for educational purposes is about nine acres on which there will be:—

- (a) A Central Public Elementary School with an Assembly Hall and Medical Clinic, and accommodation for about 300 pupils.
- (b) A Technical School, at which about 460 pupils are receiving instruction during the present academic year.
- (c) Barley Park House, which has been fully equipped for the teaching of Domestic Science subjects, owing to the increasing demands for education of this type. Day and Evening Courses

are held, and also a three months' Intensive Course for advanced pupils who desire to qualify for posts as cooks and housekeepers, etc.

- (d) Two large gardens for instruction in Horticulture to senior pupils in P.E. Schools.
- (e) Agricultural plots for pupils in Junior Technical (Agricultural Science) Department.
- (f) Two Playing Fields.
- (g) Play Centre for Infants.

To provide suitable accommodation for such important movements as the Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, Young Farmers' Clubs, Nursing and Child Welfare Associations, etc., which at present are without rooms of their own, application has been made to various Trusts for financial assistance with a view to the erection of a Rural Institute.

It is unnecessary in these days to emphasize the importance of developing schemes of this character in rural areas. The problems which they offer are many and varied, and are a call to all serious-minded people to labour unceasingly for their solution.

The success so far achieved in this scheme is largely due to the untiring enthusiasm and work of Mr. M. M. McCausland, H.M.L., Chairman of the Regional Committee, and Mr. Wm. D. Cousins, the Secretary.

2. *The Arellian Nursery School.*—This is the first open air Nursery School in Ireland, with accommodation for thirty-five children. The site is admirable and the building, though not at all luxurious, is entirely adequate and flooded with sunlight. The Superintendent, Miss Dorothy Moore, and the Hon. Secretary, Miss Mollie McNeill, are putting all their energies into this work, which is helped forward by enthusiastic voluntary helpers.

3. *Belfast Juvenile Advisory Committee*, instituted in 1928 by the Minister of Labour, aims at providing suitable outlets for the energies of children who, having left school at an early age and entered into employment, have then become unemployed. It includes an Instruction Centre at which the Minister of Labour is authorized to insist upon attendance as a qualification for receiving unemployment benefit. There is an attendance of approximately 600 boys and girls, and the curriculum is divided into purely educational subjects and handiwork. The concern of this Committee is firstly to protect children from the moral dangers of idleness, secondly to keep them fit for employment, and thirdly to make them more employable.

**IRISH FREE STATE.**—At a public meeting addressed by Mrs. Ensor in Trinity College, University of Dublin, on Monday, 8th February, the Chairman, Professor R. J. Fynne, announced that an Irish Free State Section of the Fellowship was in process of formation. We have since learned that this new Section has been definitely established and is already arranging a series of important meetings. It is hoped that at an early date Groups will be formed in various Free State centres and that the Section will enter upon a really



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active career. Notwithstanding General Election activities and the fact that two other particularly attractive functions had previously been arranged for the same time, Mrs. Ensor's meeting was remarkably well attended, and her audience gave clear evidence of interest in and cordial appreciation of her address on 'The Message of the New Education Fellowship'. Much interest was also shown in the Nice Conference and several of those present expressed a desire to attend.



### The Home and School Council

has just appointed Miss M. A. Payne as its Organizing Secretary. Miss Payne has for the last three years been Organizing Secretary to the Institute of Medical Psychology (late Tavistock Square Clinic), and has been closely connected with the work of the Home and School Council since its inception. Her book, *Oliver Untwisted*, is widely known and she has just written a second which will be published shortly. A very wide field of work awaits Miss Payne's enthusiasm and organizing abilities, and the Council looks forward to a great expansion of its activities.



### Nursery School Association of Great Britain

On 12th December, 1931, the Council of the National Association of Head Teachers passed the following resolution:—

'That, in the opinion of this Council, so dependent is the future welfare of the nation upon the fullest development of its citizens that the care of the children, in both its physical and educational aspects, should be a first charge upon the national resources.'

At the Annual Conference of the National Union of Women Teachers held at Southend-on-Sea from 29th to 31st December, 1931, the following resolution was passed:—

'This Conference urges the need for the extension of the Nursery School Movement and the provision of Nursery School conditions for all children to the age of 7 plus. It is of opinion that the education of all children from the age of 2 plus to 7 plus should be controlled by the ordinary code of regulations for Public Elementary Schools'.

Experience as an Assistant in a Nursery School for girls leaving Secondary Schools at the age of 16 or 17, as a preliminary to the regular training of a nurse or teacher, has been considered recently by a Committee of the Headmistresses' Association.

It is evident that the plans made a year ago for establishing Nursery Schools in various parts of the country will not survive without the exercise of the greatest determination on the part of those who realize that a Nursery School cannot rightly be looked upon as a luxury or educational 'frill', but rather a serious economical measure, even more appropriate during this period of widespread anxiety and distress than in normal times. We hope that the *Hull Daily Mail* is not correct in stating on 20th January that 'no one is likely to raise any serious opposition to the Council's decision not to proceed with the proposed

Nursery School'. We trust that those who supported the original plan will not rest until it is proceeded with. It is satisfactory to read that in Tiptree the substitution of a plan for a nursery class instead of a nursery school is reported to have drawn a strong protest from Councillor Welch, who stated that in his opinion 'Nursery Schools are one of the most vital of all necessities in elementary education'.

The Newcastle Education Committee is about to open its first Nursery School with accommodation for ninety children.

On 26th January the Nursery School which has been built by the St. Pancras House Improvement Society above their new flats in the Sidney Street area, was opened by Princess Arthur of Connaught. This is an exceptionally interesting enterprise as showing one of the ways by which the Nursery School may take its place as the normal adjunct of the home, even in a crowded city area. The School will provide accommodation for about forty children of the Society's tenants and will have the use of a large roof garden. It is indeed most encouraging to know that a Nursery School has been included in the plans of a building scheme from the beginning. It would be an incalculable benefit to future generations of children if all those engaged in town and building planning would follow the example of the St. Pancras House Improvement Society in this respect.



### Other Points of Interest

#### CHINA

A Committee of child psychologists, educators and social workers is studying the problems of Chinese children and the best means for making available proper methods and materials on parent education and child training. A study has been started to ascertain the norm of physical and mental growth. An experiment in art education for selected children, based on the plan of Dr. Cizek of Vienna, has been arranged. Charts on pre-natal and baby care have been printed and circulated, and one on dental hygiene is in press. A book of stories and another of songs for children have been published.

Among the projects immediately ahead of the National Child Welfare Association are the following: A model Child Welfare Home at Nanking, where modern equipment for health and education will not only be employed to care for 200 children housed in eight cottages, but will serve as a demonstration which others may study and adapt. Two new clinics are to be opened; also a nursery school in Shanghai to care for children whose mothers work in factories. A draft for a Juvenile Court has been completed and a Declaration of the Rights of the Child is being prepared. Forty-eight men and women chosen for their special fitness are giving their time and energies as volunteer workers on the various committees.

#### ENGLAND

*The London School of Economics*.—Applications are invited from social workers for admission to a one year's course of training in Mental Health. Six Scholarships of about £200 each are available to



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those holding Social Science Certificates, or their equivalent. Training includes theoretical and practical work, and is designed to qualify students for appointments such as those of Social Workers in Mental Hospitals and Child Guidance Clinics. Applications for Scholarships should be made not later than 1st May, 1932, to the Secretary of the School, from whom further particulars may be obtained.

#### SOVIET RUSSIA

The Council of People's Commissars in Russia has recently provided for an increase of 25 per cent in teachers' salaries. The teachers of Russia, like those of the other great countries of the world, are strongly organized. The majority of them belong to what is known as the Educational Workers' Union, which includes—in addition to teachers—school medical officers, school cleaners, and in fact all those connected in any way whatever with education. The subscription to the Union (which at the present time numbers over 800,000) is a flat rate of 2 per cent of salaries, no matter what the grade of service. The Union materially assists in the moulding and development of the new educational system, all Education Bills and programmes of work drawn up by the Narkompris (Education Department) being submitted to the Union for suggestion and final approval, whilst its advice is always sought in the appointment of Head Teachers. The Education Minister attends its Annual Conferences for the purpose of making his yearly statement and of answering questions.

Much that has been accomplished in the schools of Russia—and whether we agree with the general methods adopted under the Soviet régime or not, we must not shut our eyes to the fact that great innovations and improvements *are* taking place—is undoubtedly due to the efforts and enthusiasm of the teachers coupled with the earnest co-operation of their fellow-workers in other walks of life and of the scholars themselves.

Minima salaries are settled by law for the whole State and are graded according to the cost of living in five zones. Twenty-four hours per week of class work in the first grade schools and eighteen in the second grade is general, any time spent on school work above this being paid for proportionally. Village teachers usually have lodging provided, and both in the villages and towns in cases of illness the teachers are supplied free of charge with medical and hospital aid. They are as a body, poorly paid, as we know, but the great majority of them realize the present difficulties of their country, and they realize that year by year improvements are definitely taking place. The real value of their salaries is greatly increased by the many valuable privileges to which they, in common with other workers, are entitled. For instance, concessions in connection with the education of children, free insurance, non-contributing pension after twenty-five years' service, rest homes, clubs, help in illness, etc.

Men and women receive the same salaries. Women are allowed two months' holiday before and one month's holiday after childbirth, with full pay.



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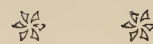
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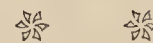
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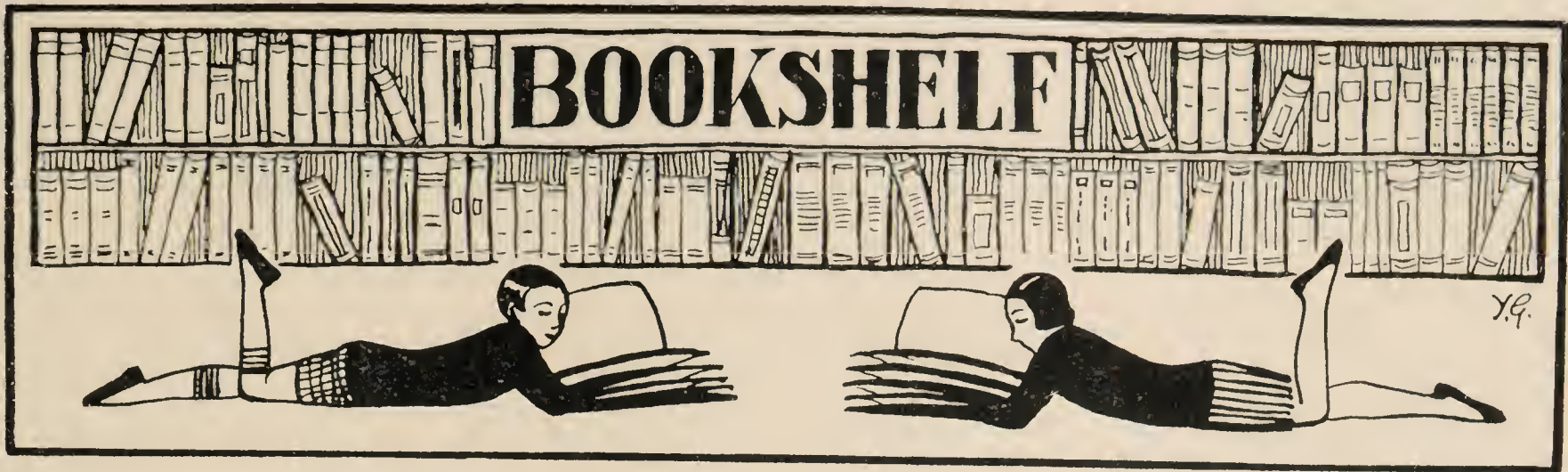
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**The Triumph of the Dalton Plan.** By C. W. Kimmins, M.A., D.Sc., and Belle Rennie. (Ivor Nicholson & Watson, Ltd. 6s.)

The title is a bold one, and perhaps a little misleading, for it might suggest that the Dalton Plan is to be found in full use in a vast number of elementary and secondary schools in England and elsewhere. A Dalton School is still the exception rather than the rule, but it is encouraging to read of the many places where the plan has been tried out with success, and has won the approval of both teachers and pupils. Indeed the Dalton principles are exercising an ever-increasing influence on schools, and, as Dr. Ballard remarks in the chapter which he has contributed to the book, these may be applied in a variety of ways and in a varying degree. In most cases the plan has been adapted and modified to suit the conditions of each community, with the result that no two Dalton Schools are exactly alike.

The fact remains that the plan admits of this adaptation; Dalton principles can be used in the education of children of all ages from seven onwards, and experiment has proved that not only in private, but in public, elementary and secondary schools where the staffing and accommodation are on a fixed scale, the ideas of Miss Parkhurst may be introduced without undue difficulty, and with real success.

The principles are indeed sound, and make for a happy combination of these two aims of education, the free development of the individual personality, and the realization of the community spirit. By encouraging group work and mutual help, and by doing away with all marks and prizes, the competitive spirit is replaced by the spirit of co-operation: the activity and responsibility in the process of education are shifted so as to rest more than hitherto on the pupil, and less on the teacher. For at the basis of the whole plan is the fundamental belief in the child, in his desire to enlarge his capacities, and his need of activity and self-expression.

It is perhaps a pity that in an appendix some 'typical assignments' have been given, for assignments must always be made and judged with a clear knowledge of the conditions under which they are to be fulfilled, the books available, and the age of the children concerned. Hence, almost any 'typical assignment' is open to criticism, and these might well cause dismay among teachers who were thinking of

adopting the plan. The teacher must be as free as the pupil, and only by freely experimenting will he find out how much or how little to put into an assignment—what can best be done by group teaching, and what can safely be left to the pupil and the library.

M. Davies

**Projects in the Education of Young Children.**

By Hilda K. F. Gull. (McDougall's Educational Publishing Co. 5s.)

The Consultative Committee of the Board of Education after hearing evidence with regard to the Project Method were unable to reach a definite decision as to its merits, for incorporation in the Hadow Report. It is beyond question that in this attractive book, which gives a singularly fair account of the method, the author fails to carry conviction to the reader as to its value apart from providing an increased stimulation of interest by giving very young children a convenient centre around which practical exercises may appropriately be grouped.

It is very difficult to reconcile the statement: 'The project method seeks to educate the child through purposive activity, as the race educated itself through purposive activity. In the past the purpose was the purpose of the teacher, but in the project method the purpose is the child's own purpose, and this purpose, felt within the child's own innermost being, urges him to the thought and activity upon which his development depends', with the following which appears later on in her book: 'Not only must the children's interests be considered but it is necessary that the teacher should consider her own special interests and abilities: so much depends upon the teacher; and the work will gain enormously if the children are thereby brought into touch with the subject or subjects of which the teacher has special knowledge, and for which she has more than average enthusiasm'.

The author sums up the difference between the normal and the project method quite clearly: 'Individual work with graded apparatus seeks to make the means attractive to the child; projects make the end attractive'. The ideal solution is undoubtedly a combination of the two. The danger of leaving important gaps in a child's knowledge which must result from the exclusive use of the project can thus, to a certain extent, be avoided. The descriptions of



the suggested projects are very interesting. Of these, the most workable would appear to be 'The House that Jack built' which is recommended for six-year-olds. For older children the project designed by an able teacher departs from the essential purpose for which the project stands—the child's own creation.

C. W. Kimmins

**The Children We Teach.** (Seven to Eleven Years.)  
By Susan Isaacs, M.A., D.Sc. (University of London Press. 3s. 6d.)

In this book Dr. Isaacs describes some of the more significant characteristics of the mental development of children between the ages of seven and eleven, and all the way through relates these facts to the everyday work of the teacher. It is a book which gives us a striking combination of psychological insight into the similarities and differences in real children and a discussion of the implications of these characteristics when it comes to teaching and general treatment. All the same the line taken is suggestive rather than exhaustive, and only open-minded and discerning readers will get the full significance of all the practical suggestions.

The book is divided into three main parts after the introduction. Part I deals with Individual Differences, Part II with Social Development, and Part III Intellectual Development.

The first part will be of special use to those who are still puzzled by the use and significance of mental tests. In the second we find explanations of conduct which we may have observed, but not always understood, while considerable light is thrown on the moral values and social judgments of primary children, but to many the third will make the biggest appeal. In this section we find a clear discussion of how children of this age think and reason and Dr. Isaacs adds to the interest by discussing the work done by Piaget in this connection.

All the way through the writer's plea is for the teacher to make use of the child's natural activity—activity in all directions—for only so, she claims, will full development be possible. I venture to predict that the book will have a large sale, for it is clear and straightforward in style and undoubtedly meets a real need.

E. M. Nevill

**Child and Universe.** By Bertha Stevens. (John Day Company, New York.)

Those who have opportunity of watching the progress and trend of education in the present day, note with concern the tendency in school and out of school to stress the development and culture of the intellect to the exclusion of other functions of mind. The examination system, which dominates the schools, is all directed towards intellectual attainment and in all competitive endeavour intellectual ability makes for success. Yet the emotions are the prime movers of

mental activity and the very source of human energy. It will surely be the task of the education of the future to find ways and means of cultivating and training the emotions in close relation with intelligence, not only in order to ensure harmonious development, but to make educational effort more fruitful.

In *Child and Universe* the author has made an important contribution to the realization of this new aim. A high place is always claimed for æsthetic subjects, because they give scope to the emotions, but an appeal to the proper kinds of feelings are also provided by science. The author offers in the preface of her book a plan to makers of primary school curricula whereby natural science becomes the core of education for two successive years. 'It treats natural knowledge not as a teaching subject, but as a force acting through human life, helping to explain it and giving it quality'. The book is frankly not a text-book.

The book is a serious contribution to the solution of the problem of method by which the desirable end might be attained. The subject matter, as the title implies, deals with the earth in space, the inside of the earth and its surface, the earth's atmosphere, and the beauty and rhythm pervading all. It shows clearly how the study of these topics may be developed by the children and the teacher or parent in concert, using the children's actual experience and love of practical activity, enriching and supplementing it. The latter factor in the process is assisted by the book to an admirable extent. The style and language, illustrated by most beautiful photographic reproductions and references to literature, must be a source of stimulus and delight to any thinking and susceptible mind. It will certainly create an atmosphere and mental background of wonder, reverence and æsthetic emotions which activate the best teaching. It is perhaps hypercritical to express a fear that its very attractions are a source of danger. It is doubtful whether the children's limited experiences and practical matter-of-fact habits enable them to apprehend the great significance of even simple, everyday discoveries. The danger will therefore be that they accept words and not things, and that they are overcome by the deep feeling and vision of the teacher and are unable to express themselves in action. This danger is to some extent guarded against in the last chapter in which the curriculum as a whole is discussed and which may provide outlets for the mental energy which deep and trained emotion should yield.

The illustrations in the book are beyond all praise.  
C. von Wyss

**The Year Book of Education 1932.** Evans Bros., Ltd. 35s. net.

We should like to draw the attention of our readers to this very valuable Year Book, a review of which will appear in a subsequent issue of the *New Era*.



# THE NEW ERA

## IN HOME AND SCHOOL

---

### Outlook Tower

‘I THINK that general public feeling is also tending to the admission that accomplished education must include, not only full command of expression by language, but command of true musical sound by the voice, and of true form by the hand.’ As Ruskin himself admitted later, this was a prophecy rather than a statement of fact, in 1870. Even to-day, general public opinion can hardly be said to admit that the training of hand and voice and mind are equally important functions of education. But we are moving in the right direction and in the curricula of most schools nowadays craftsmanship holds a definite, though often still too limited, place.

In the current issue of the *New Era* we have gathered together accounts of experiments in crafts-teaching in various types of schools, both in Great Britain and in other countries. Through limitations of space, we have been obliged to make a false demarkation between Art and Craft. Painting, drawing and sculpture have been omitted. With the notable exception of Dr. Decroly’s article, we have also been forced to leave on one side all considerations of those sub-

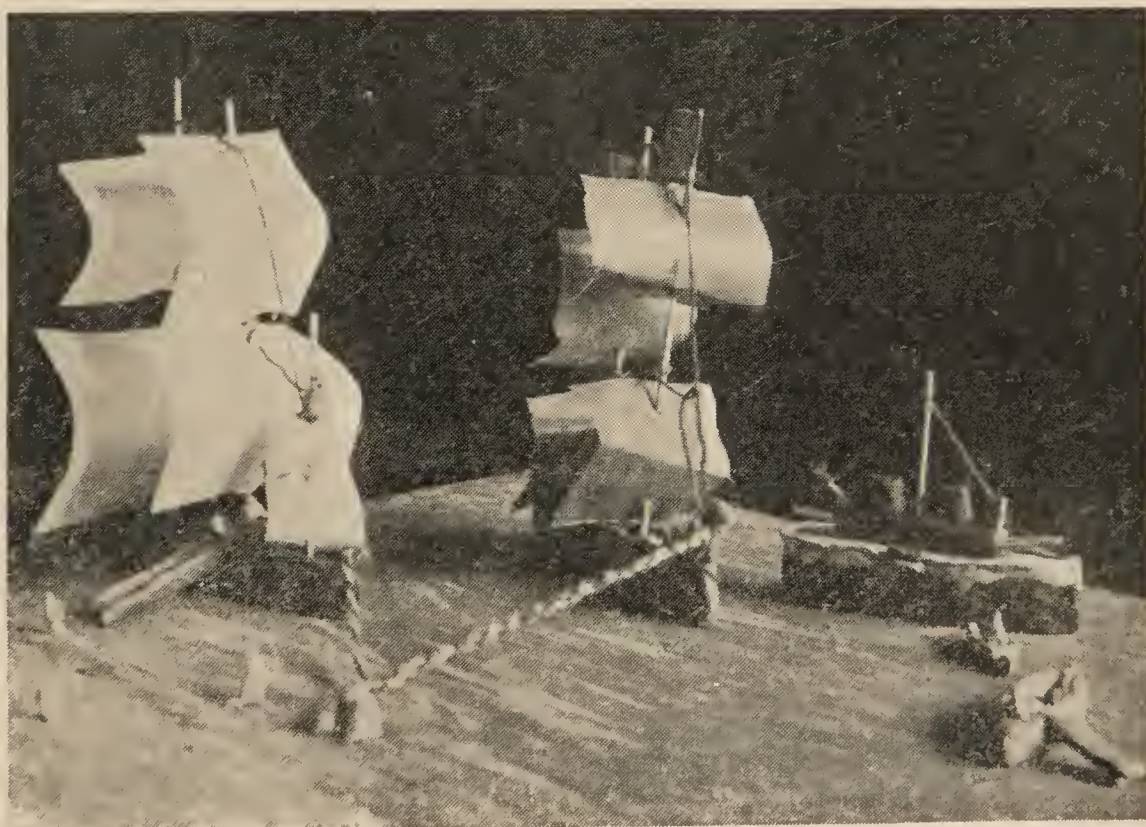
jects that are concerned with home-making and horticulture, and have confined ourselves to those which fall strictly under the heading of crafts.

#### *Benefits of Craft Work*

The three great benefits that every child should gain from craft work are: a trained eye, that will recognize and demand beauty of line and colour in every man-made thing, however work-a-day its use; a proper correlation of hand and brain, that will further his development as a man and enhance his value to the community; and, last but by no means least, a means of making articulate his individual perceptions and ideals.

Craft is an outlet for the need to be *doing* which is one of the chief characteristics of growing creatures. It is valuable to the intellectual and to the non-intellectual child. To

the former it gives balance, and is a concrete test of accuracy and honesty of workmanship, qualities that are not always easy for the child to test for himself in his other lessons. To the latter it gives self-confidence and the realization that his contribution to the community is as essential as



*Black Sea project—Czecho-Slovakia—boys age 10*





Woodcut by Frances Flaherty (13), Garden School, England

that of his seemingly more gifted fellows.

Obviously the educational value of crafts lies in the actual making of a thing rather than in its beauty or utility when finished. One child may gain far more both in experience and satisfaction from some crude object made with pleasure and spontaneity than will another from something far more perfect, turned out with glib facility.

The school should offer the child choice among many crafts, for whilst the training of the eye might be achieved through the making of pottery, and the training in manual skill through carpentry or weaving, the third and perhaps most vital thing—the finding of a medium of expression for his thoughts and feelings—can be ensured only if the child is allowed to consider, and even try his hand at, a diversity of crafts. Leather-work, basket-work, jewellery, printing, book-binding, wood- and lino-cuts, carpentry, pottery, weaving and, if possible, work in the engineering shops, should be available to him, so that he may choose the medium best suited to his own aptitudes and desires.

#### *Methods of Organization*

As regards the actual organization of the work, this is perhaps best done on the lines of the medieval Guilds, as it is at Tyringe School, Sweden. 'The members of a Guild are apprentices, "journeymen" or "masters" . . . For example, Forms IV and V get lessons in bookbinding twice a week, and there is also a bookbinders' Guild. The journeymen's test consists in being able without help to bind a book which is

approved by the Guild, to calculate the cost of the materials for the same and to give a verbal explanation of how a book is bound. . . . Through the Guilds we are striving to promote the social ideal which is implied by the clever helping those who are less clever.'

In America the organization is somewhat different. In some schools one finds a carpenter's bench, tools, paint-pots and brushes in one corner of the classroom, sometimes screened off, for the sake of tidiness, by a home-made screen. In other schools a small craftshop may be built out of each classroom so that craft may be an integral part of subject-matter—this is especially so for junior work. In still other schools the craftshops are separate, but in any case the requisite tools are available to the children at all times, so that they may run in and make such things as they need for their projects or other activities. Thus they will weave rugs and construct wigwams for an Indian project, make and paint scenery and properties for any play they are producing, make tables or bookshelves for their classroom, or toboggans for their out-of-school time.

#### *Obstacles: Time, Money and Staff*

The three chief obstacles to giving crafts their due place in the curriculum are time, expense and staff. Time is grudged, once a child enters the senior school, for any subject that is extraneous to examination requirements. However, it is reasonably easy to ensure a proper place to craft work in the boarding school, and



here and there an enlightened teacher in a day-school has changed the whole face of his curriculum to this end.

As regards expense, craft work may be done either in the most elaborate of work-shops or, if need be, in the ordinary classroom. But usually if the head teacher wish, he can find means of obtaining the necessary equipment.

One of the most debatable questions connected with craft work is whether the finished products should or should not be sold. Strictly speaking, once a child can turn out work that is finished enough to have a commercial value, the *educational* value of that particular craft is over as far as he is concerned. On the other hand, necessary new equipment may be obtained by the barter or sale of finished products. A case in which this plan has been adopted is the Decroly Press. The children had been publishing a weekly paper on a mimeograph. This involved a great deal of work and was unsatisfactory. So they borrowed the money to buy a printing press and repaid it by the sale of what they printed.

Some schools can afford special handwork teachers. In others the crafts taught depend on the skill of the ordinary classroom teachers, most of whom nowadays are given a training

in craft work as part of their ordinary course, or else equip themselves at vocation courses.

*Social Benefits* The growth of craftsmanship in the schools should provide a means of solving certain urgent problems in the modern world. First, by raising the general level of taste, it should ensure far higher standards of beauty both in domestic architecture and in the products of industry. Second, such teaching should do much towards the reinstatement of craftsmanship in a position of honour in the community.

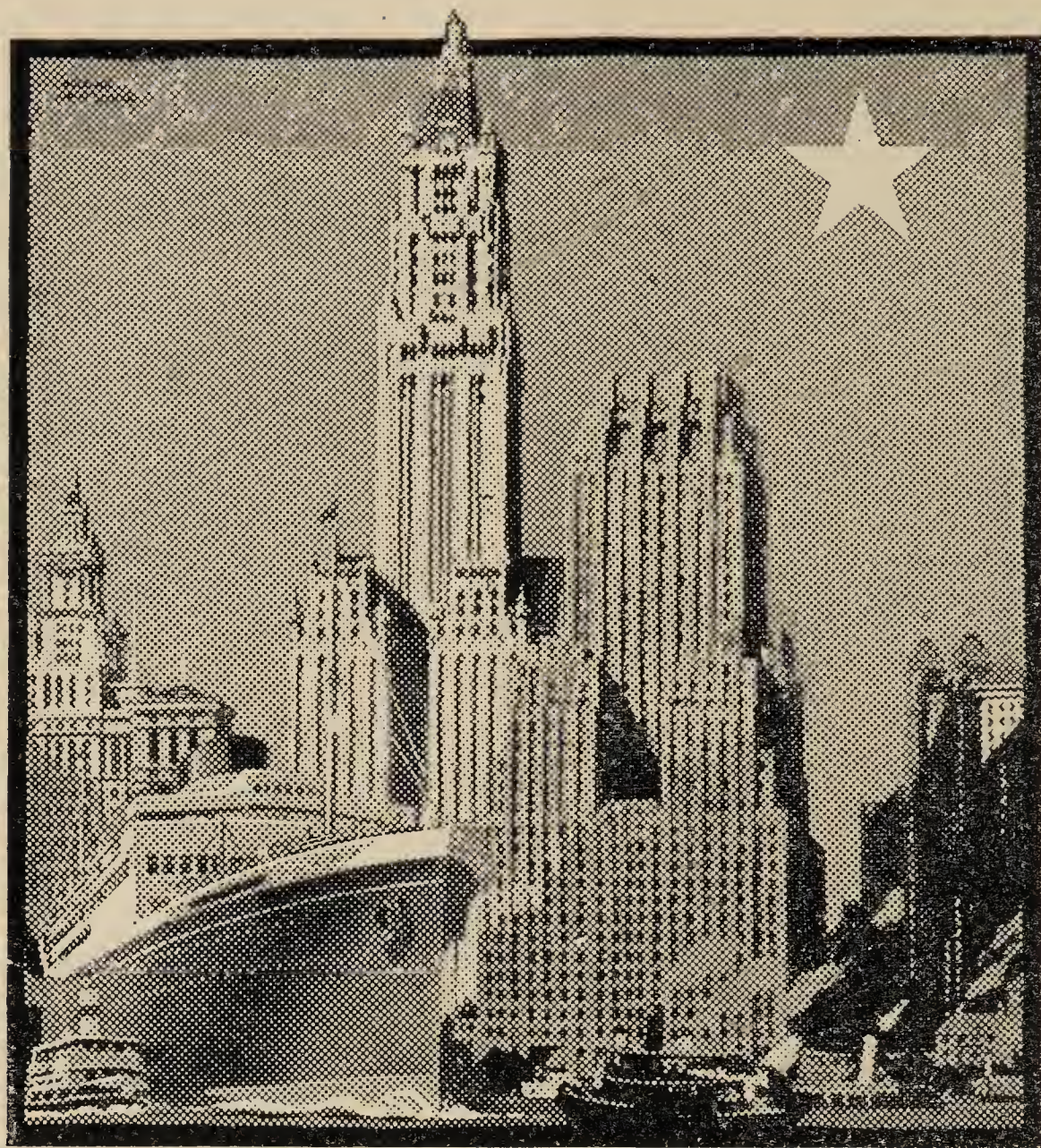
Third, and most important, training in craftsmanship should open out new and satisfactory ways of employing leisure, so meeting an acute sociological need. The happiness and sense of satisfaction of a man will depend more and more upon his interests out of working hours. Certain bodies are watching closely the growth of craftsmanship in English schools, because they suspect that manual training will become vocational training and that the children will not find in the schools that wide field of study that, as they grow up, should form the basis of their interests apart from work. Needless to say, those who advocate more craft work in schools hope that the skill so obtained will prove a boon in the employment of leisure in a properly organized adult community.



Woodcut by Mary Abercrombie (15), Garden School, England



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# Handicraft Instruction for Boys in Austria

Dr. ROBERT MOCKEL

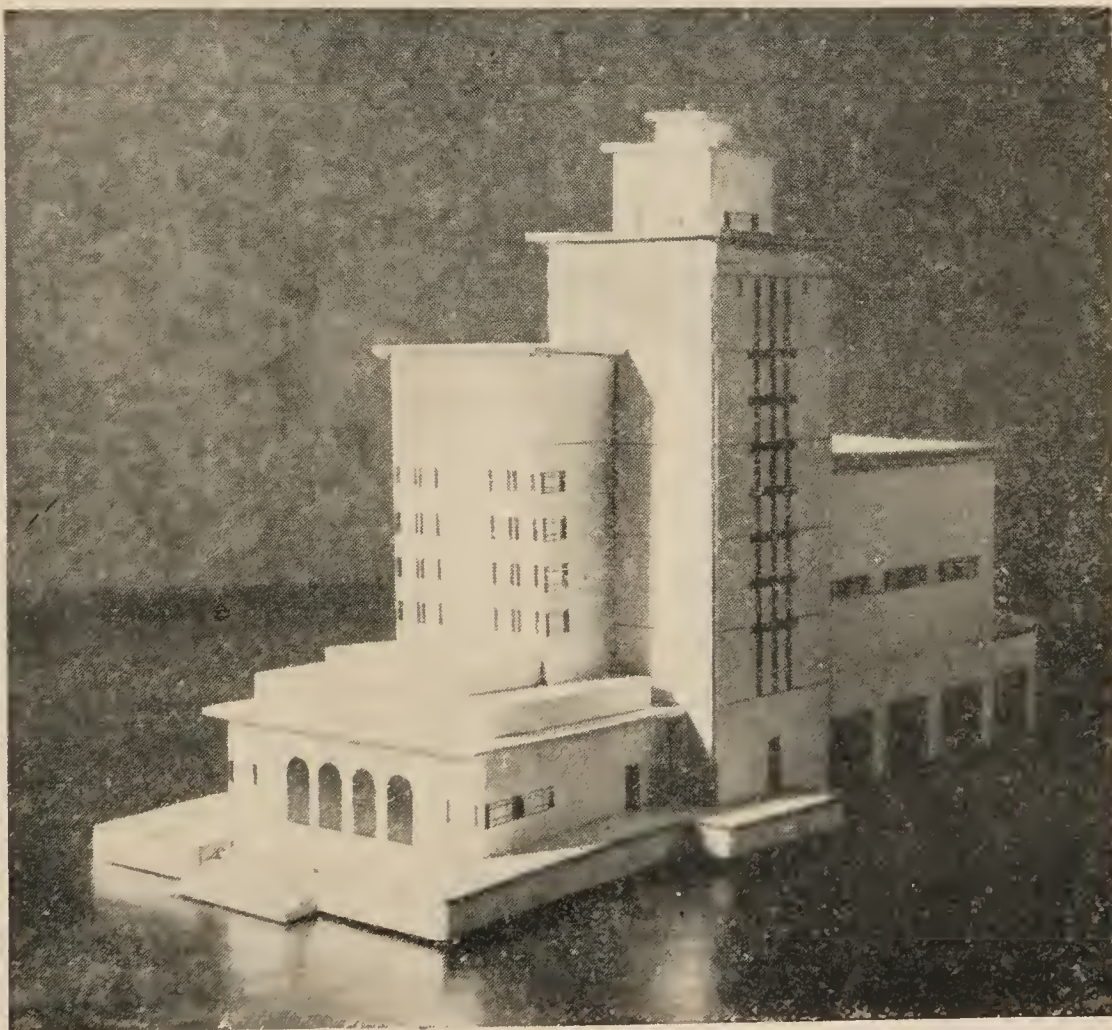
IN 1927, when Mr. Richard Schmitz was Federal Minister of Education, two significant educational bills were passed by the Austrian National Council, viz.: The 'Mittelschulgesetz' (Law for the Secondary Schools) and the 'Hauptschulgesetz' (Law for the Higher Grade Primary Schools, formerly called 'Bürgerschulen'). These two Bills were the culminating point of the reforms proposed for primary and secondary education. They stipulated that handicraft instruction for boys and needlework instruction for girls should be made compulsory in all secondary schools and 'Hauptschulen' in Austria.

The schedules for handicraft instruction were fixed in 1928, and, according to Austrian Educational Law, they are binding for all secondary schools, federal as well as private, and for all 'Hauptschulen', whether managed by local or provincial authorities, the Church, or private associations or clubs. Handicraft instruction is obligatory in the secondary schools for three years in succession (from the eleventh to the fourteenth year of age) and may be continued voluntarily during the five succeeding classes (from the fifteenth to the nineteenth year of age). In the 'Hauptschulen' handicraft instruction is being given through all four classes, i.e. until the end of the fourteenth year of age.

The various fields of activity for boys are pasteboard work (using such materials as paper, paste, and cardboard) including book-binding; also carpentry and metal work. In addition to these, modelling in clay, plaster casting and carving in plaster are admitted. The handicraft instruction for girls comprises the usual kinds of needlework, such as crochet and embroidery work, sewing, mending and darning. The introduction of instruction in needlework for girls is not of a recent date, whereas handicraft instruction for boys, at least at secondary schools, is an entirely novel branch of education in this country. In what follows, therefore, only handicraft instruction for boys will be discussed.

In the schedules, two hours a week are allotted to handicraft instruction. From this fact it may be seen that there is no attempt to make the training in the schools vocational. The value of handicraft instruction lies rather in its cultural effect on the pupil. For this reason alone it was enforced in the secondary schools. The strong

cultural influence which it exercises imparts to it an exceptional position and extraordinary value as compared with such subjects as science, language, mathematics, history and the like. Arts and crafts share the task of endeavouring to awaken and cultivate creative forces, and a higher degree of independence, slumbering in the child. In



*Cardboard work by boy of 11 years*



handiwork, a double restriction is imposed upon any unruly creative instinct: first, the object which is to be created imposes its own limitations of use and shape, and second, the medium in which the object is to be made—the essential properties thereof—will afford both inspiration and a curb.

By striving to create an object, the pupil will be governed and guided at many points. He must consider the plan of the work very deeply: its purpose and therefore its form; and the latter must be well-chosen, both from a technical and an aesthetic point of view (co-operation with art instruction). Suitable material must be selected and the proportions exactly determined. If any one of these things is neglected, the work must be to some extent a failure, no matter what pains the pupil may take subsequently. Lack of forethought, patience or thoroughness should be punished, not by any reproaches from the teacher, but by the failure of the pupil to achieve his own aim. In this way, he experiences the fact that handicraft demands, not merely the work of his hands, but the best that is in him.

As the work progresses, a wrestling with the material is involved. The pupil, as the result of cumulative experiences, becomes acquainted with its various properties, with the ease with which it may be handled and with its intractability. In addition to improving his skill, which he must attain and then apply, he learns to know that no thing comes into being of itself, that a great deal of perseverance, industry, patience, exactitude, neatness, foresight, as well as forethought, are necessary to the accomplishment of even a modest piece of handicraft. And again it will not be the praise or censure of his teacher that rewards or reproaches the pupil, but the justifiable pride in his own work that

has succeeded, or the disappointment in a failure, brought about because he started the work wrongly or did not draft any plan or worked with impatience or did not keep his tools in order or took no heed of the peculiarities of the material with which he worked. Thus the youngster, within his own sphere of activity, gains his own bitter and immediate experience. The work itself teaches him, just as life teaches grown-up people.

And it is these potentialities which render handicraft instruction valuable for youth. It is these potentialities that give it its place of importance as the counterpart of purely intellectual instruction. It is these potentialities, with the strict discipline which they entail, that lend handwork its peculiar educative value. The objective lessons given by handicraft instruction will benefit the individual through character training. They will also benefit society, by schooling the pupil to adapt himself to the community, be it by working in the company of his comrades or by co-operating with them on a common work.

It may be stated in the meantime, as being of

considerable significance, that practical productive work attains a striking result among the pupils of the higher schools—the future lawyers, medical men, technicians, philosophers, and the like—by helping to create in them an immediate and profound understanding of the artisan's and labourer's work.

In order that educational effect may be achieved by handicraft instruction, the teaching must be given in a technically expert manner. Should it, technically speaking, become play, it never serves its educational purpose. Herein we may assert pedagogically its intrinsic value as a natural, not dilettante, function: only the strict keeping to the rules can be the foundation



*Embossed metal work, boy, 15 years*



of its value, both as an educational subject and, more widely speaking, as a sound cultural training.

From the purely technical point of view, handicraft instruction also offers an important supplement to academic education. The manual training given to the pupil, the knowledge of materials and tools, and the many small practical experiences acquired, will be of great use to him in daily life.

According to what has been said above, while planning and performing even the least ambitious piece of child's work, the most important stress is laid upon an absolute correctness of workmanship from the technical point of view. This, it is true, brings with it a certain danger of the instruction tending to become too rigid and one-sided, so that it may allow too little room for the development of the child's creative instincts. This, however, is countered by the fact that when the pupil is choosing his work, proper regard is paid to his creative needs. Thus, for example, in the first class, where pasteboard work is done, they make not only maps and geometrical figures but also modern architectural forms which leave ample play for the child's phantasy and, at the same time, make very severe demands from a technical standpoint. More difficult still is the task of making historical architectural forms, but these refresh the child's mood and give play to his love of fairy tales. In the first class, moreover, provision is made for modelling in clay. This allows for a more unconventional creative activity and gives relief from the greater exertion due to the more strict, and therefore somewhat tedious, pasteboard work. In the higher classes, the pupils' better trained ability and the additional choice of wood and metal work, offer still more opportunity for unrestricted activity, and this

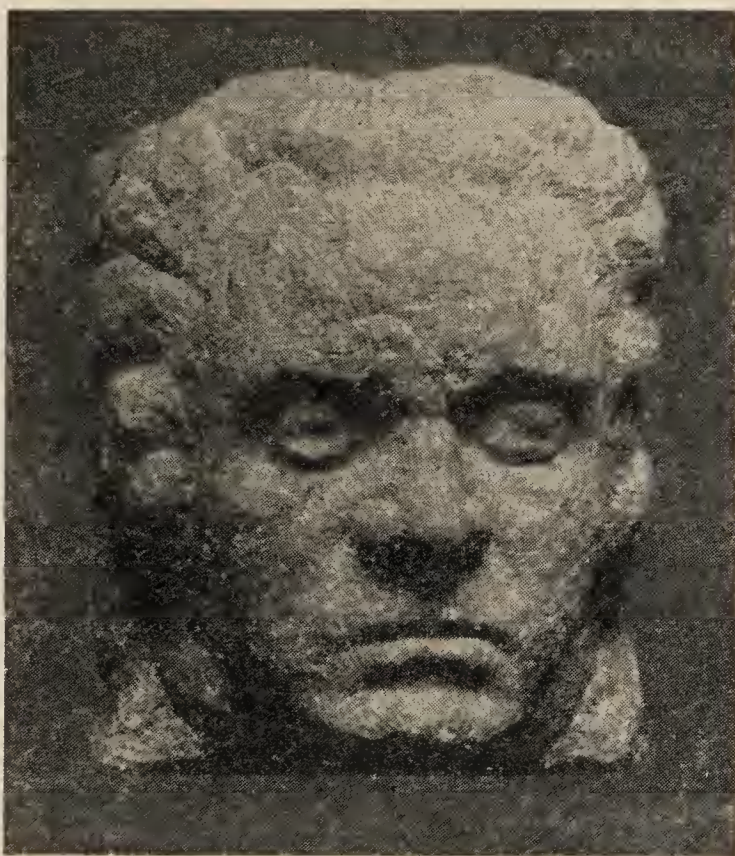
counterbalances the danger of a possible mechanical staleness. A natural and principal condition of all this work is that material, form and colours must be used with adequate taste. To this end, the co-operation with art instruction is sought. Handicraft instruction must also co-operate with all other subjects of the curriculum, geometry, physics, et cetera.\*

As mentioned at the beginning of this article, handicraft instruction for boys in the secondary schools and 'Hauptschulen' was initiated in 1927. Previous to this, experiments had been made for several years in a number of schools. There were no trained teachers at that time,

neither were there any teaching implements available. Handicraft instruction, therefore, could only be developed step by step, and not everywhere with the same results. Nevertheless within four years it has been seen to exert upon those pupils who are being taught under strict adherence to the rules a decidedly favourable influence. It is natural that the pupils show a marked preference for this branch of education, but only, and this is noteworthy, so long as it is carried out in a strictly orderly technical way, thus allowing concrete

results to be attained.

As regards the carrying out of, and the results attained by, handiwork instruction, the 'Bundeserziehungsanstalten' (Federal Institutes of Education) lead amongst the Austrian Schools. The competence of the pupils of these institutes in drawing and handicraft has been seen in



*Granite sculpture, boy, 17 years*

\* For further information see: *Der Handarbeitsunterricht für Knaben* (Handicraft Instructions for Boys), by Möckel-Grutschnig-Weissgärber, Graz, 1931. Leykam Verlag; *The Austrian Educational Institutes*, Beryl Parker (Oesterreichischer Bundesverlag, 1931); and *Die ersten 10 Jahre der österreichischen Bundeserziehungsanstalten*, Victor Belohoubek (same publishing house, 1931).



several exhibitions abroad, such as that at Elsinore in 1929 and at Brussels in 1930 (Salon d'Enfants, Grand Prix d'Honneur). In these schools, handicraft instruction naturally plays an important rôle. It has always been an indispensable means of education in boarding schools. At the Federal Institutes of Education, it is one of the pillars of the educational system. These institutes are boys' boarding schools, connected either with a 'Gymnasium' (Vienna-Breitensee) or with a 'Real-gymnasium' (Wiener Naustadt, 'Schule am Turm'). During all the eight years, handicraft instruction at these institutes is made obligatory. In the upper classes it is usually divided into two groups, one for artisans and the other for artificers, and the pupils may choose which they will. In these institutes handicraft instruction is closely linked with art instruction and all other fields of education. For theatrical performances all stage properties, side-scenes, costumes, lighting, and so forth, are designed and made by the pupils. They have decorated many of the living rooms and classrooms with wall paintings, in which work even the youngest take part. Many of their pieces of furniture are of their own clever hand work; numerous repairs and much constructional work is performed by them in the stern effort of months and even years. Each institute has established its own show-

room, where specimens of the pupils' technical and artistic labour are displayed. The exhibits are of a high value, not only when considered as juvenile art, but as applied art in the best sense. Illustrations of some of the work from the Austrian Institute of Education accompany this article.

The other Austrian secondary schools are following the lead of the 'Bundeserziehungsanstalten', and it is to be expected that, in a not very distant future, handicraft instruction will be brought to a very high level in this country. In spite of restrictions imposed upon the Austrian Federal budget during all these years, it was yet always possible to get the amounts necessary for the establishment of new school workshops, and for the improvement of those already existing. The training of a sufficiently large staff of handicraft teachers is provided for. In the autumn of 1927, the Federal Ministry of Education established regular courses for this training, under the management of the author. These courses are led by the proved handicraft teachers at the 'Bundeserziehungsanstalten' in Traiskirchen, Lower Austria, and in Vienna-

Breitensee (Professors Karl Weissgärber and Karl Grutschnig, respectively). The Pedagogical Institute of the City of Vienna and pedagogical courses in certain provincial cities are taking care of the training of adequate teachers for the 'Hauptschulen'.



*Boys, aged 12 years, making wall frieze*



# Manual Work in Education

Dr. DECROLY and S. DECROLY

## *The Rôle of Manual Work in Human Life*

Even in considering a so-called intellectual occupation such as hand-writing one is obliged to recognize that in it the hand is indispensable, and that in general the part played in human life by manual skill is enormous if not preponderant.

All the activities which tend towards the preservation and defence of the individual and the race are to some extent dependent upon the participation of the hand. Even machines, which are tending to take over certain work hitherto done by the hand, cannot be made, set going nor kept in order without its help.

It is also noteworthy that the most eloquent of historical documents—more objective than any work of poet or philosopher—are the remains of houses, temples, tombs, fragments of sculpture, shreds of clothing, jewellery and ornaments, tools, arms, utensils—all things in the making of which the hand has played the chief part.

How thin a thing would be the history of the ancient peoples without the objects discovered by the archaeologists! What would Egyptian history be without the Pyramids and all their treasure, or that of Greece without the Parthenon, or that of Rome without the Forum? What should we know of the Middle Ages without their castles and cathedrals, and the works of art in painting and in sculpture that were the enduring products of those times? All these, as Stanley Hall has insisted, are the work of the hands of craftsmen.

## *How does Manual Work differ from Gymnastics and Games?*

In *gymnastics* the movements are ordained by the teacher. They aim at enhancing physical development and grace. The movements are made for their own sake and the child is not usually conscious of the result.

The parts played by competition, spontaneity and imitation are secondary. The higher faculties are called into play only in a subsidiary manner. Gymnastics do not aim at creating, at transmuting matter, at constructing something; they employ motor energy, not tools.

In *active play* joy of movement is the chief factor. Movement is freer than in gymnastics and the pleasure lies in the movement itself, the aim being secondary. Here there may be creative activity, initiative, the use of materials and tools, but the result to be aimed at is not usually present in the mind of the child.

In *sport* the element of play is present, but competition and the team spirit are the dominant factors. The aim lies chiefly in victory. The rôle of initiative in creative activity is limited by the rules; there is no material nor special tools.

In *manual work*, on the contrary, pleasure lies in the aim. The movement entailed may have a hygienic value and the work itself may sometimes be pleasurable, but the child is chiefly concerned with the aim. Such work usually involves both material and tools.

Manual work, more than gymnastic play or athletics, may demand the co-operation of all the functions, both physical and mental. It thus tends to favour various physiological activities—respiration, circulation, digestion and transpiration. It is therefore an important factor in the promotion and maintenance of bodily health. But when it entails attention, accuracy, fore-thought, reason, logic, when it demands the accommodation of effort to a given tool, implement and material, it favours in addition a harmony between body and mind. It helps to develop a healthy mind in a healthy body; it helps to establish balance in an integrated personality.

Not all manual work is equally appropriate to these diverse aims. It is obvious that preference must therefore be given to those forms that entail the movement of the whole body, carried out, if possible, out-of-doors, or in well-ventilated rooms, and not demanding the use of any material that may be harmful to bodily health. Gardening and the rearing of poultry and rabbits are the most useful. Among the most easily realized forms of work are those that combine manual work with certain elements of play. The various occupations which form part of the training of a troop of Scouts or Guides are excellent if they are supervised by an enlightened and conscientious adult.



*Manual Work in the  
Treatment of Nervous  
and Mental Disorders*

mental and nervous disorders.

As soon as the physical state of the sufferer permits, he is made to carry out some activity, preferably a useful one, that is as far as possible in accordance with his mental capacity and taste, and in proportion to his physical strength.

Thus in certain well-organized and well-equipped institutions, almost all the inmates, from the chronic cases to those suffering from temporary delusions of various kinds, are encouraged to occupy themselves with manual work, and thanks to this we often see the agitation, violence and obsessive ideas diminish, and improvement, and even cure, are speeded up to a marked degree.

In the rational treatment of adults, aimed at saving them from a nervous breakdown or at curing some pathological condition, the useful rôle of manual work is usually acknowledged. It is not difficult to concede that it may have at least an equivalent effect in preventing or combating imbalance in those children who are most likely to suffer from a too one-sided education—that is to say, in children of intellectual parents and inherited neuropathic tendencies. Manual work is also invaluable in maintaining harmony of all the mental functions and in guaranteeing the psychic health of *all* children.

*Some Results Obtained by Giving  
Manual Work to Difficult and  
Arrested Children*

is especially suitable to certain categories of difficult or arrested children.

- (i) Those who find difficulty in expressing themselves verbally and who therefore meet with special obstacles in the school or in the home: children who are deaf, or who have serious defects of speech, and who are backward in any subject that entails verbal expression (whether mentally defective or not). I will give one example among many others that we have been able to follow up.

A. G., 8 years old, cannot go to school or live happily at home, expresses himself with difficulty, has a mania for the ceaseless repetition of the same words, refuses any consecutive occupation or

Manual work is one of our most effective means of treating those who are suffering from

game; obstinate, apathetic, rather serious mental weakness.

*Régime:* Is encouraged to look after hens with a boy who is already used to this sort of work. Gradually gets to like the work and wants to do better at it than his companion; becomes more active and takes extreme pains with his work. In his school subjects he makes perceptible progress.

*Result:* Has gone back to his home in the country, takes an active share in the work there, has become obedient and manageable and has no more anti-social reactions.

- (ii) Those who feel a need to create, invent and investigate in an aesthetic or scientific direction and who take much more pleasure in drawing, making things with their hands and experimenting than in talking or writing. I will give two examples in this category.

(a) A. P., 10 years old, is backward at an ordinary school, turbulent and difficult with his parents, obstinate, sulky and refuses to do ordinary lessons. A mental examination reveals a certain backwardness, but he is especially bad at the verbal tests. Oral expression, reading and writing are especially weak. On the other hand he does quite well in the motor and practical tests.\*

*Régime:* Various sorts of manual work, gardening, care of hens, cutting out, modelling, book-binding, drawing and making games for the younger children. At the same time his troubles with handwriting, spelling and language are tackled and he soon accepts help in these matters with goodwill and perseverance.

*Result:* Excellent from the point of view of character; becomes a model child as regards conduct and concentration. Improvement in school lessons, especially in arithmetic. Excellent at all manual work, having reached an age to be apprenticed, he takes up jewellery, at which he acquires great skill and earns a very good living; goes through the War on the French front and becomes a non-commissioned officer. After the War gets work on the railways and marries.

(b) J. G. first became a scholar at the Ermitage School; after two years shows special difficulties in writing and spelling, and serious faults of character; a stormy temper, cannot keep up with his class and is sent to the Institute for special teaching.

*Régime:* Is put on to various sorts of manual work, specially gardening and care of animals, for which he shows a preference.

*Result:* Rapid improvement from all points of view, even that of scholarship. Is able to enter a school of horticulture, takes his diploma; at present head grower for a garden architect.

- (iii) Those who have too marked an inclination for purely mental work and tend to avoid

\* This case was published in a medical journal of neurology.



every sort of practical activity. Manual work is often indispensable to these if they are to be prevented from becoming unbalanced, but they often need a great deal of encouragement at the beginning.

(a) P. B., very arrested, incapable of keeping with the children of 6, various efforts to help him made him lazier than ever, completely passive, incapable of taking part even in games, saying that he is always tired, talking with great incoherence.\*

*Régime:* Set to work in the garden, he gradually begins to enjoy it, as well as looking after animals. Then he begins to take interest in his school work (reading and writing by the globale method) to such an extent that he makes more progress in one year than he has done in the previous seven. Remains rather dull mentally but has become physically active and has begun to enjoy his work.

*Result:* Having gone back home, after two years, he has been occupied in a workshop which produces hand-made carpets.

(b) G. A., boy of 9½, has considerable gifts of verbal expression, passes fairly satisfactorily the tests appropriate to his age but is clumsy; does not succeed in doing some simple motor tests which are passed by children of 5. Social behaviour equal to that of a child of 4. Cannot keep up with his class because he does nothing and disturbs the other children by his incoherent chattering. Writing uneven, bad, drawing backward; dirty and untidy in his person; rebels against any consecutive occupation, excitable, talks incoherently.

*Régime:* Makes little things with a fret-saw; this he comes to enjoy doing. In the garden where he was impossible when he arrived, he becomes more dependable. The child is still under treatment.

(iv) Those in whom an unsuitable education and neuro-pathological tendencies have sub-induced more or less serious disturbances.

(a) G. H., a boy ten years old, neuropathic, cannot get on at home nor in any school; has crises of disturbing nature with a tendency to suicide. Has inherited neuropathic tendencies; had to be taken back to the Institute three times after his parents, considering his state improved, had taken him home.

The child is intelligent but very much concerned about his health, complains of imaginary ills.

*Régime:* Set to work at gardening and the care of animals, he came to enjoy working among plants and improved so markedly that he was able to take up special studies in a horticultural school.

*Result:* Did his military service in occupied territory and was then sent upon state service in the Congo. He writes from there: 'Happily I have learnt to use my hands'. Came back from the Congo, married and has a child.

(b) A. G., came to us at the age of 8 with signs of serious mental imbalance, dumbness, hallucinations, crises of crying at times, a refusal of food, spoilt. Rigid attitude, grimaces, systematic negativism, avoids the society of other children, does not play, inherited neuropathic tendencies.

*Régime:* Various activities which gave no results for more than a year. After this period tests were applied which showed favourable results from the point of view of motor intelligence, and a retardation of four years from the point of view of verbal and intellectual activities. Gradually takes up useful occupations in the household, in painting and above all in poultry breeding; gardening attracts him less. From this moment onwards there was remarkable progress in his nervous state, almost all the alarming signs disappeared and he took pleasure in his class-work.\*

*Result:* Complete transformation in spite of persistent mental weakness (I. Q. about 60), special development in practical intelligence.

*Some Practical Advice* In order to succeed with the greater number of children,

(a) preference must be given at first to useful manual work, especially to gardening, chicken rearing, cooking, the making of toys and weaving; (b) other sorts of manual work (modelling, binding, cutting out, sawing, upholstery, wire work) can be added gradually, and are specially useful in the winter and on wet days; (c) one must give responsibility and liberty and must encourage initiative; (d) as soon as possible one must reward certain sorts of work by a concession to the instinct for ownership, e.g. by giving a plot of earth; (e) one must proceed by degrees, not according to pedagogical formulae, but by taking into account mental age and character; (f) one should set out from play activities and global activities, only reaching analysis gradually and as it becomes necessary; (g) one must encourage the children by example and by working with them.

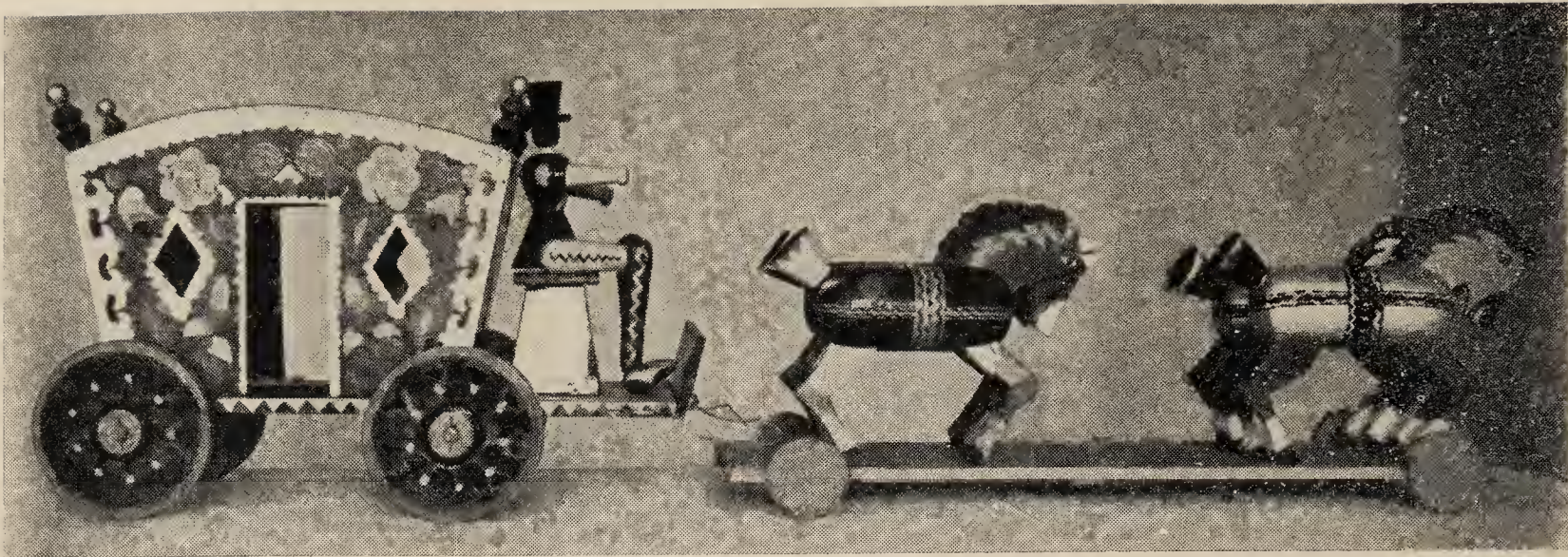
*Conclusion* Cases that do not yield to treatment by manual work are usually those that may be considered incurable, and even where there is a certain amount of progress in verbal work, school subjects or on the artistic side, it is to be feared that the child will remain incapable of any useful activity and will not improve either as regards his nervous system or from the social point of view.

\* This case was also published in a medical journal of neurology.

\* This case was also published in a medical journal of neurology.



## Polish Crafts



*Toys made at the State School of Applied Art, Lvov (pupils 14-19 years old)*



*Lace made by Frances Rozniak—age 16—at the Professional State School for Girls, Lodz.  
Her original Design*



# The Key to To-morrow—III

## New Education and Craftsmanship

PETER SANDIFORD

THOSE of us who are familiar with schools which exhibit a free and progressive spirit know that Arts and Crafts find an honoured place in their curricula. This adoption of creative forms of handwork as an integral part of their programmes has been more intuitive than logical, but of its effectiveness there can be no doubt.

All persons now living in civilized communities have been reared in a world of books. So ubiquitous is the printed word that the average person of to-day not only associates the word education with books, but assumes that no education is possible without them. Yet a bookish education for the masses began with the latest tick of the clock of history; it was mainly a late nineteenth century development. We are altogether too prone to forget that mankind has, on the whole, managed to educate itself with little aid from books, and some of its members have been very well educated indeed. Even the ancient cave-men, as may be seen, for example, in the Altamira caves, were skilled carvers in bone, stone and ivory, as well as exquisite draughtsmen. Their drawings of bison, mastodons and other animals of their day, could hardly be excelled by modern artists. Here was undoubtedly something that we claim as the product of education—a hand obedient to eye and brain. In the same way, modern excavation in Egypt, Mesopotamia, Central America and elsewhere is bringing to light ancient forms of pottery, furniture and jewellery that could only be fashioned by an educated people. Yet of books and book-lore the mass of the population knew little.

The ancient civilizations of Assyria, China, India, Greece and Rome can scarcely be said to

have been founded on books. These people must have been in the main illiterate, and though Solomon complained about the 'making of many books', he can have had no foreboding of our modern output. Yet these people were in the truest sense educated. Their art, expressed in architecture, in pottery and in sculpture, is still the wonder and envy of a twentieth-century civilization.

The excellences of medieval monastic and knightly training were due even more to their practical than to their bookish natures. In the

very making of early books one senses that an artist, a true craftsman, was at work. The beauty of old houses and cathedrals depends largely upon the craftsmanship that was displayed in their building. Master workmen worked their wills in the free creation of fantastic gargoyles as well as of beautiful windows and

carvings. So truly was this the case that Ruskin in his *Stones of Venice* was able to write a history of Venice, not from her ancient documents but from her buildings, from the very stones of that famous city. When she was in the ascendant, she showed it in her architecture and her interior decorations; when she began to decline so did her craftsmanship.

Those of us who have come to live on the North American continent after a youth spent in some European country, are at first astonished to learn that pioneering life kept alive the spirit of craftsmanship until so late a date. Home-spuns and hooked rugs are still produced by the Habitant women of Quebec, and students still come to the Universities who remember their mothers practising the arts of the pioneer. For the pioneering home was full of practical arts and crafts. Wool and linen were spun,

*The able teaching of Craft work should ensure :—*

1. *The revival of the spirit of craftsmanship and of pride in good workmanship*
2. *An outlet for creative self-expression—a growing need if man is to make a right use of his increasing leisure in this machine-driven age.*

*Therefore the teaching of crafts must become an integral part of education.*



woven and made into clothing in the home. Farm implements were also home-made, as was the home itself. The furniture and decorations, frequently very beautiful, were the expressions of craftsmanship. Children assisted in the various occupations—the preparation of food, shelter, and clothing—and to round off a most excellent education, only a meagre knowledge of the three R's was necessary. The older generation of Canadians may not have had a profound acquaintance with the world of letters, but it would be a profound misjudgment to pronounce them uneducated. Life in the ever-receding pioneering belt still exhibits many of the characteristics of pioneering times, but with the improvement of the means of communication and with the mail order catalogue of the departmental store, it has been robbed of much of its former educative value.

Some of my readers will undoubtedly be thinking that all this is simply by the way. We live in a world of machinery and in a machine age we cannot go back to the stage of handicrafts. This is perfectly true and nobody realizes more fully than does the writer the futility of trying to put back the clock of history. But it is still possible to make machines our slaves, not our masters. In school, at least, as Sanderson of Oundle successfully showed, youth can still keep its inventive and creative powers alive, while utilizing machines to help the speedy working out of creative designs. In school, also, leisure time may be spent in occupations which keep alive the true spirit of the craftsman. Craftsmanship in schools will at least teach what is truthful and honest in workmanship. It will help us to avoid the sham in architecture and furnishings, the products with 'Queen Anne fronts and Mary Ann backs', as a friend of mine expresses it. Such training in craftsmanship may help us to solve the problem of an education for leisure of the person who is condemned to a life of monotonous toil by the mass-production methods of a machine age. We teachers are just beginning to appreciate that an education in which creativeness, invention and craftsmanship fail to find a place is after all only half an education. Schooling can restore to the young

a practical education which the factory and the department store have driven from the home.

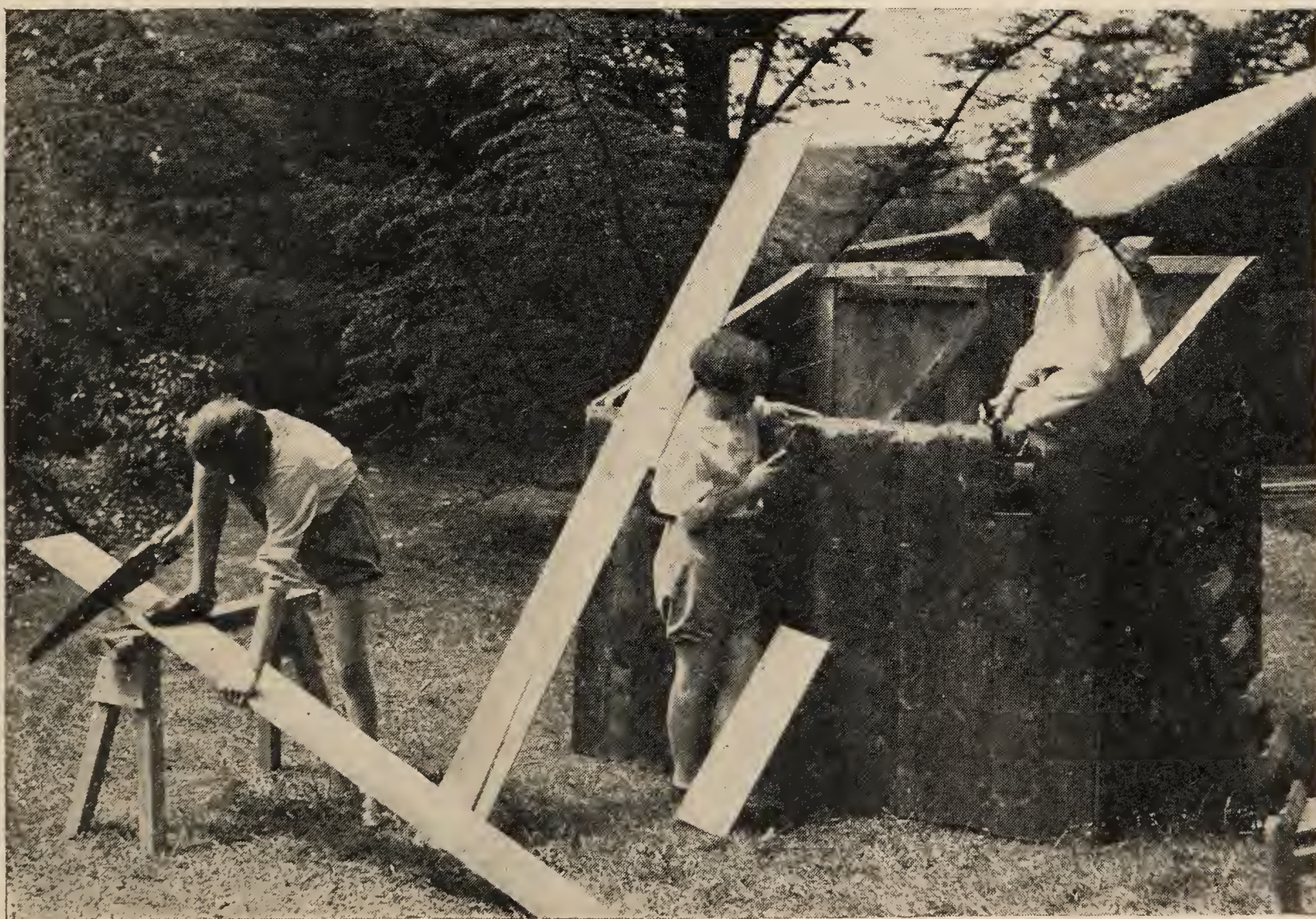
The decline in pride of craftsmanship is ubiquitous. Not long ago some carpenters fitted bookshelves into my study, and were leaving the job, quite well-pleased with themselves, when I noticed that they had only polished the tops and fronts of the shelves, leaving the wood rough where they imagined it would not show. I pulled out some drawings of medieval workmanship and shewed them marvellous carvings hidden beneath the seats of choir stalls and finely worked capitals, too high for any passing eye to see. Those men put a high finish on the backs and undersides of my shelves without a word—but the lesson requires a wider and more persistent driving home than I can ever give it.

Another group of readers may remind me that as a psychologist I ought to know that there are book-minded pupils as well as hand-minded ones, and that the bookish ones, the ones who find their satisfactions in abstract thinking rather than in the use of their skeletal muscles, are on the whole those we deem the more intelligent. All this is perfectly true and I am fully aware that the chances are all in favour of the thesis that it takes a higher level of intelligence to comprehend mathematics or the classics than it does to become a good cook or a good carpenter. Nevertheless it also remains true that the bookish type of pupils, from whom the professions—medicine, law, teaching, preaching and engineering—are recruited, would be improved educationally by submitting themselves to a training in craftsmanship. It would enable them to lead a fuller life as adults and would provide an activity which would prove one of the best forms of relaxation between times of strain and stress. As for the artists, it is obvious that the freedom of creation and invention must be an integral part of their education. Lastly, may I insist that the modern school has scandalously over-emphasized the training of the intellect and has neglected the equally important emotional and artistic side of our pupils' natures. It is a happy augury that the new education is helping to redress the balance.





*Workshops at Frensham Heights School, England*



*Carpentry at Maltman's Green, England*



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# Character-Building through Crafts

JOHN T. TANSLEY

PRACTICAL instruction in schools has many names and many avenues of approach. It is labelled as craftwork, handwork, handicraft, hand-and-eye training, practical work or practical instruction. The avenues of approach are almost as numerous as the schools that employ them, but there are certain fundamentals pertaining to all.

There is however one aspect of practical work which is often overlooked—its enormous power for good in character formation and development; and we estimate this as the main standpoint from which to approach the subject in this particularly poor and sordid area.

The result of the scholars' effort in practical work is so palpable and follows so quickly upon performance that an incentive to further effort and endeavour is provided, and an impetus is given towards further attempts, with the resultant strengthening of the moral fibre.

Previous to the introduction of practical work in this particular school, the neighbourhood generally was apathetic if not antagonistic towards education, and in the school the ordinary curriculum failed to make that necessary appeal which creates endeavour. The results of the children's labours were not easily discernible and their progress was too slow to induce great attempts towards improvement, handicapped as the scholars were by poor mental abilities inherited from their antecedents. There was little backbone in them and the prevailing idea was to do as little as possible—to take little pride in achievement, as full achievement seemed too far off, too visionary. School work was disliked and numbers of the scholars found their way into industrial schools. At the remodelling of the school, in the middle of the Great War, a new method of approach to learning was instituted—a new atmosphere permeated the instruction. Learning by 'doing' displaced 'listening in'. Since practical work was one of the means of retrieving delinquents in the industrial schools, prevention by such methods promised to be equally effective and much better for the community generally. Carpentry, boot-making and mending, tailoring and other

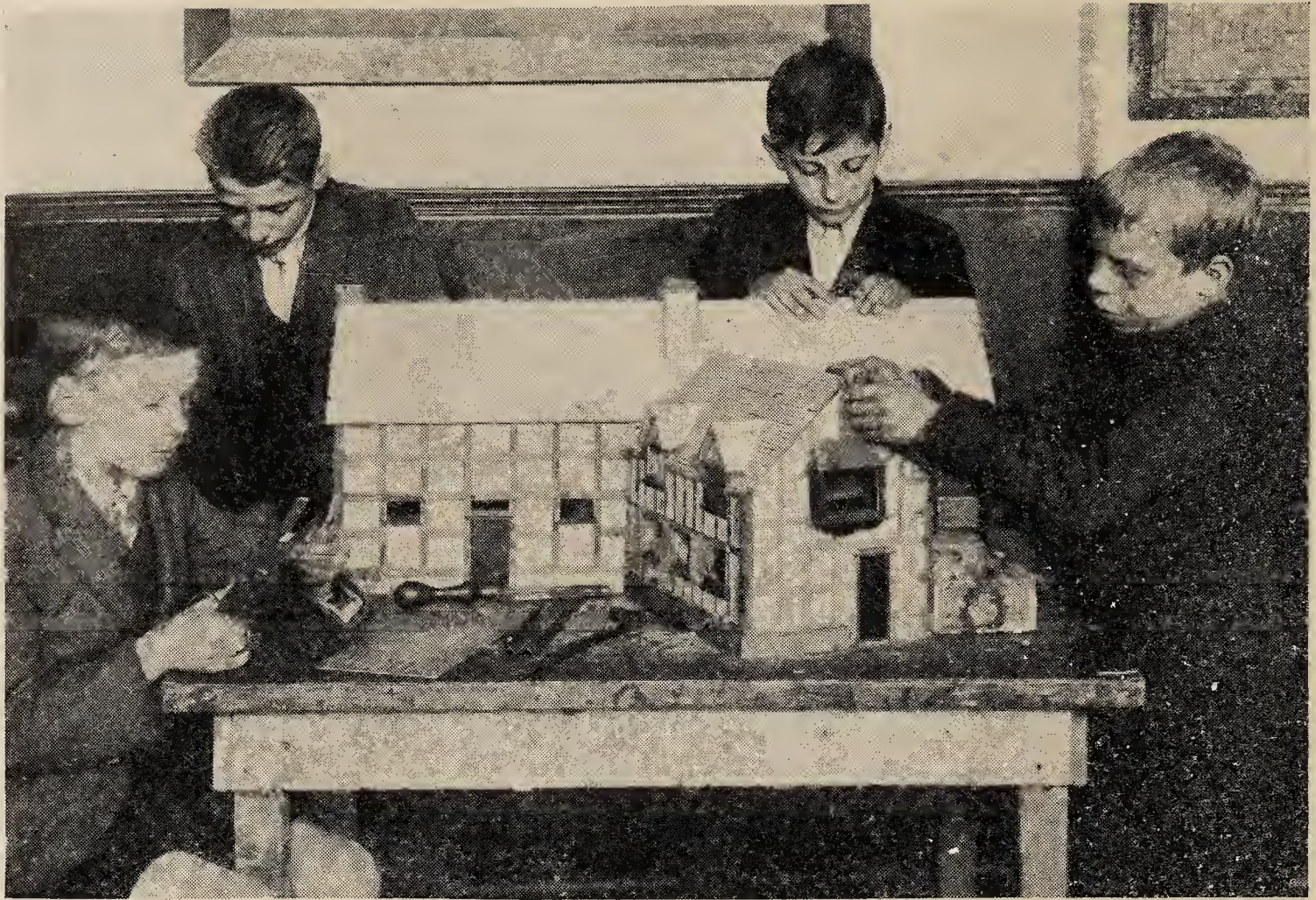
forms of practical work, where results could be easily seen and measured, could be equally effective in prevention, which is at all times better than cure. The experiment was tried, the local education authority gave all possible assistance, and to-day we are fully justified in proclaiming it as an immense success. The scholars leaving us are better workpeople with higher ideals and bid fair to become better citizens.

We aim more at character formation and training than at teaching a craft. Indeed, we could not teach a craft, as our scholars leave us at fourteen years of age. We rather aim at providing instruction in manipulation of as many tools as we can get, in the making and reading of a working drawing, and above all at legitimate pride in a well-finished job. We secure precision and accuracy, as no constructive work can be accomplished without these. The scholar makes his own corrections when he finds that his parts do not fit. His errors are distinctly noticeable to him. It should be noted in passing that the mechanical drawing, of which we almost make a fetish, is of great assistance. The art instruction, being closely allied to the practical work, inculcates appreciation of the beautiful and the lads are encouraged to study not only 'utility' in their constructed models, but also 'pleasing effects'. An object is no less useful because it is ornamental. Utility and ornament work well together in harness and make a good pair.

An endeavour is made to secure the full development of the scholar by motor activities as well as intellectual, the faculty of observation is cultivated and the dignity of work is kept well in the forefront. The team spirit in work, as well as in athletics, during the construction of large models such as miniature railways, docks and harbours, etc., inculcates habits of carefulness and consideration for others and makes the lad a little less selfish because of his dependence upon others for the completion of the particular work on hand. Every attempt is made to get the scholars to live up to the school motto: 'Man's greatest occupation is to be a man'.

The subjects of the practical instruction include paper-work, cardboard-work, book pro-





*Making Model Houses in a London Elementary School*

duction (printing and binding), stripwood work, wood painting, carpentry, metal-work, practical science (electricity) and science of petrol engines. Incidentally instruction is also given in tile-making and pottery. Plenty of scope is here provided for definite instruction in the correct use of tools of many kinds and in discovering special inclinations, aptitudes or bents. Mechanical drawing is very closely associated with this work.

Large models, necessitating team work and incorporating many sides of our practical instruction, are important items in our constructive work, as they knit together not only the various types of instruction, but also the scholars throughout the school. One of our latest—a model railway, with running trains of carriages and trucks, constructed by scholars from most of the classes, called into play the supervision and direction of the teachers of woodwork, metal-work, practical electrical science and art. How delightful it was when the boys who had so carefully constructed the various parts assembled these parts and the train moved and the points worked, shunting the train on to another line, and their pride and joy increased when their little brothers and

sisters in the infant department were invited to see it. Such models create and foster intense school and outside interest, and it is remarkable how much material can be brought from home or gathered by the scholars especially in these days of wireless in the homes.

Every endeavour is made to forge links between the home and school and the school and life. A repair day is held about once a month when saucepans without handles, kettles without spouts, etc., provide opportunities for real practical jobs. An open evening, providing an opportunity for father (as well as mother) to visit the school and see his 'young hopeful' actually at work in the shops, in addition to other finished products of the boy, takes place about every second year. The atmosphere around us is so bad that we cannot grow flowers, but we can paint and originate floral designs and each year we are successful in winning prizes given by the local gardens' guild.

The amount of school time devoted to practical instruction here will be one of your queries. Under 11 years of age we devote to it a quarter of their school week, and from 11 until 14, about half of the week. As justification, if such be necessary, for this large amount of time

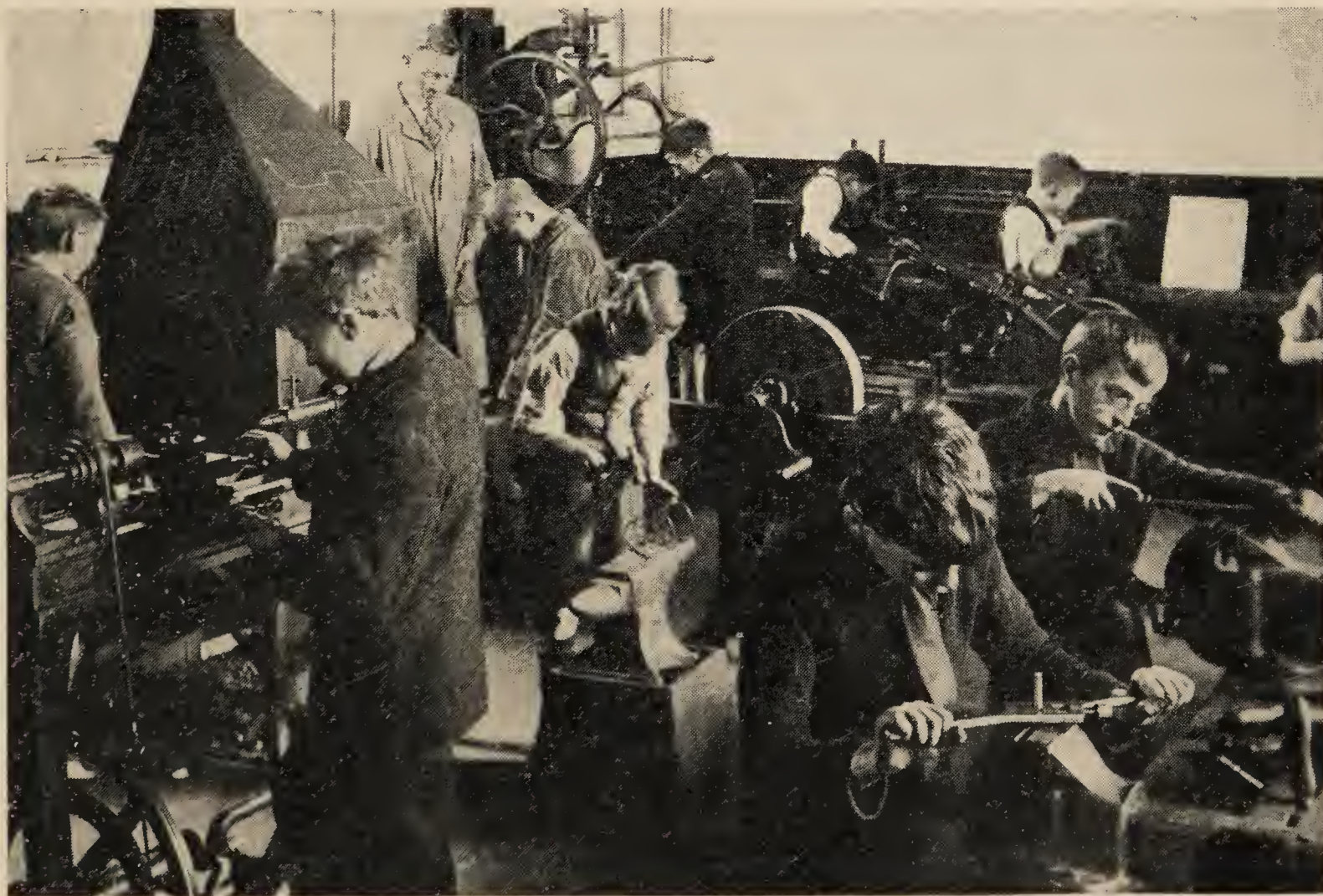


as well as for the small additional expenditure compared with that of other schools, we know that we have strengthened the moral fibre of the locality slowly, gradually, yet successfully. A comparison of the 'leavers' at 14 years of age before the change and now—the occupations the lads are desirous of engaging in on leaving—the fact that employers come to the school for a second boy because the first has proved himself worthy; these things are our rewards. Previous to the change on one occasion 73 boys left the school. One went out as an artisan, one went into commercial work, and the rest went out as street traders. Of 240 boys leaving between 1923 and 1926, 119 went into skilled trades and only three were found out of employment. For nearly fifty years the school went on without a scholarship being gained. In 1923 a boy whose widowed mother is still working hard at menial work to keep the home going, won a Junior County Scholarship and went on to a higher institution. He there secured his matriculation and last year Intermediate Arts, and hopes to pass on shortly to one of the Universities. Last year we secured our first Art Scholarship, and we fully anticipate that the

two boys who have recently successfully passed the examinations for Trade Scholarships will bring honour to themselves and to their school.

The fact that we manage each year to secure certificates for essays from the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, from the Lifeboat Society and from the London Safety First Council, shows that the endeavour and effort engendered by practical instruction finds its way over on to the literary side of the work.

Many instances recur to me of boys, with natural tendencies to go wrong, who have been completely changed by practical instruction and practical work. One boy in the school at the present time has made a set of chisels and punches in the engineers' shop. Effort and endeavour on this job have undoubtedly saved him from continuing to be the waster he was. Therefore while some may advocate practical work to provide craftsmen, some to secure precision and accuracy, some for one reason and some for another, character formation and development stand out as the goal towards which we are reaching and which in some small measure we are achieving.



*Workshop in a London Elementary School*



# Craftwork in a Preparatory School

S. C. FISH

'Since the beginning of the educational experiment at the dawn of civilization, the problem has been to rouse an interest in the formal exercises of the school. This problem has in the main only been successfully met by subtle sympathy and knowledge. . . . a sympathy which, in one way or another, discovered the growing-point in the child, and fitted the task to the necessity of the individual. . . .

All growth is accompanied by impulses to activity, due to the surcharging of the central nervous system. From the physiological side, that which rouses an interest tends to quicken the pulse and determine a full blood supply to the entire nervous system; thus growth is promoted.'

PROFESSOR DONALDSON,  
*The Growth of the Brain.*

IN dealing with the craftwork in a school such as Dunhurst, the writer is perhaps in an unusually enviable position.

The average age at which the children enter the Lower School at Bedales is from six to seven years ; at twelve or thirteen they pass on to the Upper School, the time of their transference being determined more by their age and individual characters than by their attainments. The teachers are therefore spared the tyranny of the Common Entrance examination, that bugbear to so many child-lovers in preparatory schools ; moreover, as they are able to keep in touch with their former pupils until the end of their school days, they can watch more closely the results of this early training. We are frequently asked by visitors who are struck by the variety and beauty of the craftwork at Dunhurst whether the children ever have time to do anything else. It is reassuring to be able to reply that, not only is the standard of the children's intellectual work considerably above the average of others of their age, but that they also excel in all forms of sport.

This period in a child's life, from seven to twelve years, is, or ought to be, a peculiarly glad and healthy time. Infancy and early childhood are full of changes and critical moments ; in adolescence new powers appear and a new horizon opens. Between these with their inevitable risks, comes a stretch of five or six good years which, if wisely dealt with, should prove among the happiest of human life.

What should be the task of the educator during this period?

To provide an environment which shall foster the growth of the child, so that he can lead with benefit and delight a strenuous eager life, using his faculties to the full.

Putting aside the questions of suitable food, and such things as air, space, sleep, etc., which lie beyond the scope of the present article, the next absolute necessity for successful growth and development is that the child shall be as far as possible ceaselessly happy.

Physiologically joy is one of the greatest, perhaps *the* greatest, of all aids to development; it has been thought that possibly it is a redundancy of joy in some particular activity which goes to make what we call genius.

What constitutes joy or happiness to a young child ? One answer to this question was given many years ago by a small boy of six. He was found lying in bed in the early morning with large shining eyes full of joy, and greeted his friend with the remark that he was so happy that he did not know what to do! In answer to the question: 'What makes you happy?' his reply was : 'When I am happiest is when I wake up in the morning and remember that I have so many things that I want to do that I don't know which to begin first'. The same thought has been repeated to the writer with varying emphasis by some hundreds of children during the last twenty years. In other words, joy to the young child is synonymous with creative interest, so that the educator, in order to supply this factor in physical growth, should provide him with the stimuli necessary to provoke it.

And here again, the physiologist can help us. The child at this age is repeating in his development that early stage in the history of humanity when man first acquired skill in the most necessary arts of life, and attained a mastery over himself and his surroundings, the stage at which he learnt the use of the tool, thereby developing his brain with such rapidity that it increased in sheer bulk to nearly double its size and pushed the skull upwards for three-quarters of an inch.



The brain of a child up to the age of ten or thereabouts is almost entirely developed by muscle and nutrition, and the hand that wields the tool plays a larger part in brain development than any other part of the body.

When one comes to deal with children of this age their capacity for doing and discovering seems almost unlimited. Keeping before us the fact that the younger the nervous system the more entirely it depends for growth on direct stimuli, and that only actual sensation, actual experience, counts, the question which arises is not, which crafts are suitable to be introduced into the preparatory school, but how to associate all the knowledge which the child acquires with some form of handwork.

This object, as has been proved with young children in many schools, is not difficult to attain.

Handwriting for example is a craft, and as such should be regarded. Children are easily interested in the traditional history of writing; they can learn that the chisel cut naturally and easily the fine sharp forms of Roman letters on stone, but that when quill pens on vellum came into use this difficult material affected the letter forms. In this way they gain a respect for the long history of writing, and learn that they must not lightly alter or vulgarize a letter according to their own fancy.

Arithmetic can be linked up with craft in innumerable ways, even in such small things as encouraging the child to understand the meaning of a yard by making his own tape measure.

History and geography teem with opportunities for various forms of craftwork; all the properties in the accompanying photographs were made by each individual child for his own use, including the wooden clogs, which, after great effort, were produced in the workshop.

Even such subjects as science and French can claim their share of craft activity. At the present time in one of our group rooms, children of eight and nine have made a two-foot relief map

of the moon, the result of their own observation through the telescope; and a large model made by the same children is in process in the workshop, destined to become a French town, with market-place, dock-yards, streets and houses, with appropriate names and notices in this newly acquired language.

The introduction of teaching in special crafts must largely depend on the question of ways and means; first as to equipment, and then as to the possibility of providing a teacher for each craft.

It cannot be too strongly urged however that a great variety of choice in the work should, where possible, be offered to the child. Every individual has far more patience and power of concentration in the performance of a task which is of his own choosing; our red-letter days are always those on which we are free to follow our own living impulses.

With children it is imperative that they should not all be expected to have the same interests, but that they should be free to develop from within on their own lines. If the child's



*Dutch project, Bedales Junior School*



growth is to be promoted by his environment, that environment must provide opportunity for the satisfaction of his fullest needs.

At Dunhurst our special craft-rooms comprise :

The Studio, a large garden room in which drawing, weaving, basket-work, embroidery, and all kindred crafts are carried on; the Press-room, the work of which is described later, and which has been devised by partitioning off a part of an airy cellar; and two rough sheds made from old army huts, one of which serves as a workshop for wood and metal work, and the other as a pottery shed.

The cost of furnishing such rooms need not be great. At Dunhurst it has been met almost entirely by the keenness and generosity of a young and enthusiastic staff. Every grown-up at Dunhurst is sooner or later inspired by the desire to become a craftsman, and a large quantity of beautiful work such as hand-made rugs, lengths of dress material, baskets, trays and similar articles are made by them during the year. These find a ready sale annually on Parents' day, and, in addition, orders are taken throughout the year for hand-woven materials, printed notepaper, and other things, many of which can be made by the children themselves. In this way several looms, potter's wheels, and the whole of the cost of the printing press and electric kiln have been paid for by the school.

The question of the provision of the right teachers for crafts is a more difficult one. When the children are quite small and are beginning to learn to control their hands in the use of simple crafts, the guidance and supervision of someone with sympathy and understanding and some slight knowledge of the craft in question is all that is needed. During the eighth and ninth years the handiwork attempted is such as to require a greater skill and strength, and the children begin to develop their imagination, and wish to inquire further into the technique of the craft at which they are working. At this stage the master craftsman becomes essential to the life and vital interest of the enterprise, from the point of view not only of the child, but also of the craft.

It is not necessary however to have the master craftsman in constant attendance. A weekly visit, either of one day or a week-end, is generally enough to give the children the impetus and guidance that is necessary to carry on upon the right lines, provided that during the intervals of such visits the children can have help from some other teacher who, although herself an amateur at the craft, has worked under and with the master craftsman.

In conclusion it is scarcely necessary to add that the main thing to look for in a craft teacher is that which is sought for in the teacher of any other subject . . . a real love for and under-



*Viking project, Bedales Junior School*



standing of the young child; this alone can enable him to strike the happy mean between the dominance of the teacher on the one hand, and the crudeness of unassisted self-expression on the other.

Not long ago a small boy of seven came to the writer with a demand to learn printing 'at once'; it was a wise teacher who, disregarding the natural impulse of an adult mind to suggest a printed address or a Christmas card for the child's first effort, sent him back to the study an hour later with a radiant face holding the small card here shown:

DEAR DADDY. LOOK WHAT  
I HAVE DONE, DO YOU  
LIKE IT ROGER.

As it is impossible in the space allowed to deal fully with each craft in the school, it has seemed best to describe in detail the work of one particular craft-room.

The writer is indebted to Mr. John Guthrie for the following notes on the activities in the Printing-room. It may be of interest to add that Mr. Guthrie, the son of James Guthrie of the Pear Tree Press, came to the school many years ago as a youth of nineteen, meaning to stay for a few months only, but remained with us as master and friend for over six years. He is now engaged in art work in London, but continues to come to Dunhurst for several days each week to carry on the interesting work which has grown up under his care.

#### THE PRESS ROOM AT DUNHURST

With the arrival of the printing press and all its appurtenances a long-felt want was well on the way to being satisfied, and for a term or two several members of the staff and a number of the children worked enthusiastically, but in almost complete ignorance of the craft of printing, to make the press pay for itself and to arouse the interest of the children.

As a number of the children became more keen and anxious to explore the innumerable details of the craft, and to reach a higher standard of technique, it became increasingly necessary that some-

one with a more intimate and expert knowledge should be called in to help, so a search was made, and I was found and brought into the school, to give help with the work that had been so happily begun.

I had at that time had no previous knowledge of children, but I had lived in a home in which printing presses were necessary pieces of furniture, and the right understanding and use of them had been part of a daily life in which drawing and painting on paper and on the walls, and making and printing lino-cuts took their places along with all other daily needs.

When I arrived at Dunhurst I was determined to give the children as far as was possible this same atmosphere that I had been used to, and see whether they would not acquire a knowledge and respect for these same things.

The printing press, a small Albion handpress, was soon put in good working order, and a number of accessories that are essential to the work were bought, including some fine quality printing paper, various kinds of gay cover paper, coloured printing inks and a large quantity of blank stationery.

The printing, being intended to serve as a sort of half-way house between handwork and purely creative work, must be well-equipped to serve both sides adequately, and I felt that there was a danger of the handwork taking more than its fair share of attention, the claims of the creative side being more subtle and elusive.

Because of this tendency I have found it necessary to institute other kinds of creative work in the Press-room. The children may now make lino-cuts to print in bright colours and perhaps colour by hand afterwards, or stencils with which to decorate the cupboards; or they may make pictures on the walls in poster colours, according to their whim and fancy.

A child entering the Press-room to-day finds everything that he needs for painting, printing and engraving, and the complete liberty to do whichever he chooses.

There are certain children who prefer printing to any other work, and are pleased to sit up on a high stool by the type case and pick out the letters and spaces to make their words. To such as these a few simple instructions about where to find letters and signs and spaces in the type cases (and there are charts to help them as well) is all that is required for any child who wishes to print his own name on a few visiting cards; and the acute pleasure that everyone has on seeing his name in print for the first time becomes a pure joy when it is a thing of one's own creation. The joy of this first creation carries the child on for a long time, until he becomes familiar and at ease with the working of the press, and his fingers become deft in the handling of the tiny letters for forming words, beginning usually with notepaper headings, and later on verses and stories with initial letters and little type ornaments and lino-cuts to add to the pleasure.

I think that for a child who is going to make a lino-cut for the first time, the best way is to let him



make a drawing straight on to the linoleum, and then show him how to cut on the lines so that when it is printed a simple design in white line on black or a colour is the result. He can then see for himself how it works and how the drawing is reversed in the process, and can make his succeeding designs accordingly. This is better than attempting to explain the process to the children, as this is bound to make it appear complicated and too difficult to be attempted.

Side by side with the printing and lino-cutting, the children make paintings in oil and water-colour, keeping to flat colours and patterns mostly, particularly with the former, and one wall of the Press-room is reserved exclusively for paintings. I have made a rule that only those children who paint best shall use this wall owing to a degree of permanence and publicity in the pictures; and once a year we have it whitewashed over to make way for more. This year the wall is covered with flowers and insects, due to the influence of the Persian Art Exhibition and the reproductions of Persian miniatures that decorate the remaining walls.

Another branch of the work in the Press-room which has been running almost as long as the printing is the making of toy stage plays. We have a model theatre, which was built in the workshop and is fitted with electric lights that work off the house supply. During the long, dark evenings of the autumn and spring terms the children cut up and paint large quantities of cardboard, and each term they devise new and more exciting effects. The first plays to be produced on the toy theatre

consisted of single scenes each made by one child alone, and were designed with the simple side wings with cut out profiles and 'back cloths', the figures being made of thinner cardboard which slid on and off between the wings on wires. This has developed as the children became more experienced, and the younger children saw what the older ones did; so now we have elaborate interior sets complete with furnishings made of cardboard and modelling paste, and exteriors of forests, seas, and mountains of surprising beauty, and the plays sometimes run into three or four acts, being of course specially written by children who understand the technique and with a good eye to scenes.

We have a permanent blue sky which consists of a sheet of cardboard carefully rolled with blue to get the requisite smoothness, and this is used whenever the sky is to be seen through windows, doors, and over hills, thus saving time, cardboard and paint.

The scenes are usually mounted on beaver board bases, so that they can be slid off and on the stage quickly and quietly, and the only assistance that the children need is with the cutting of the cardboard, the kind that is stiff enough to make models being rather tough for small hands to cut through.

In the excitement of making beautiful scenes, and figures to play in them, the children unconsciously learn more about colour, form, construction and perspective than one could teach by other means in many years.



# Crafts in the Rural School

L. S. R. JONES

THIS is an account, in outline, of the Craftwork in an Oxfordshire Rural School.

The school schemes aim in general at relating the work to the rural environment and also to the practical bias of the majority of the pupils ; but as only about 30 per cent of Oxfordshire rural children eventually settle on the land in agricultural occupations, the school courses have a broad outlook and endeavour to train the children to take their place in any station of life to which their natural abilities may lead them.

Instead of forcing upon the children exclusively bookish methods which are unsuitable for their development, expressional work is encouraged in all subjects. An educational diet of vestigial 'Renaissance' literary culture is no fit nutriment for the average normal child of to-day!

The expressional schemes of the school aim at training the children in acquiring a measure of skill, particularly in the practical activities. Certain children may develop marked skill of hand and eye in craftwork; others, skill of speech in elocution and dramatics; some, skill of voice in music and singing, and skill of bodily movement in folk-dancing; whilst a few may exhibit general skill of intellect in mathematics, science, etc.

It has been found that the potential elements of skill are inherent in rural children—probably embedded in their 'racial consciousness' as a legacy from pre-industrial times, when the village crafts of their ancestors played so essential a part in the educational and vocational life of the countryside. And the teacher has only to make use of this heritage as a potent means of education of the rural child, since the development of skill is at once brain-building and character-forming.

Towards this end, a variety of activities caters for every conceivable type of rural child, so that no pupil—it is hoped—can pass out of the school with latent talent undiscovered, and without having found something in which he or she can excel, and which, with further training, may lead to success in life.

Hence the craftwork of the school is an essential part of a broader scheme of expressional work leading to the development of skill in many directions.

INFANTS' HANDWORK (4 years to 7 years).

*Aims*—Since the concrete is more readily understood by infant minds than the abstract, handwork in the infants' department is of great importance in the general training of the children in purposeful activity.

In the rural school, particularly, the younger children often appear somewhat unresponsive, and handwork proves a potent means of stimulating into activity, for the first time, the dormant 'practical' intelligence which has hitherto been hidden beneath the threshold of consciousness.

Handwork in the infants' section may be graded into three types, which in practice will often overlap and combine to form a complete scheme of practical development :—

1. Occupational (sense training, etc.).
2. Expressional (illustrative and creative).

Here the child through play activities gives expression to his thoughts by acting out his mind-images in a practical and visible manner.

3. Constructive (imitative and creative).

Up to 5 plus years, occupational and expressional work mainly fulfil the child's needs ; but at 6 plus more constructive work is introduced. Group work is encouraged.

## *Types of Infants' Handwork*

These include sand-work, plasticine modelling, paper modelling (tearing, cutting and mounting), raffia and weaving, toy-making, etc.

JUNIOR HANDWORK (7 years to 11 years).

*Aims*—In the past, there has been some difficulty in bridging the apparent gap between the effective upward limit of the kindergarten system and the downward limit of the senior handicraft, respectively. This gap is avoided by the selection of traditional crafts which have grown up with the race without any break, thus





*Upholstery in a Rural School—Boys of 11-14*

providing a continuous scheme from the infants' to the senior section.

At this stage the junior pupil is gaining muscular control and full use is made of his innate desire to do and make things, by directing expressional work into purposeful channels that are definitely educative.

The work should not only be a useful means of expressing in concrete form what is in the mind of the child—making his thoughts real by making them 'things'—but by the representation of objects it should train the powers of observation, interpretation and judgment, and widen his circle of interests.

This is the period when children are—

- (a) acquiring experience of materials, and
- (b) gaining power in the manipulation of the fingers and of simple tools such as the pen, pencil, scissors, knife, tenon-saw, etc.

In the junior stage the children manifest a need for a more accurate technique, and with the practice of this more exacting work come the increased powers of concentration, self-

reliance, and will, so necessary for success in the skilled crafts attempted in the senior section.

#### *Types of Junior Handwork*

1. Expressional work (in connection with other subjects).
2. Elementary crafts (creative and constructive).

As the children approach the age of 10-11 years, craftwork requiring a modicum of skill is attempted successfully. The crafts taken include raffia-work, coiled basketry, cane-work, weaving, plastic modelling, light woodwork, light metal-work, needlework and bookcrafts, including simple leather-work and paper and card modelling.

Paper and card modelling can hardly be termed a traditional craft, and formerly, when this kind of handwork was the only type taken in many English schools, there was a tendency for the hand and eye 'training' to degenerate into hand and eye 'straining', with little substantial advance in technique, especially when the senior classes were reached; and conse-



quently its educational value was often nugatory. But as a form of handwork for the new primary schools, involving as it does accuracy of planning, cutting and constructing, with scope for artistic decoration, it is a valuable preparatory training, leading up to bookbinding and leather-work, and also woodwork and metal-work, the basic crafts of the senior school.

#### SENIOR HANDWORK (11 plus to 15 plus).

*Aims*—In the lower sections, through simple expressional and constructive work, the foundations have been laid towards cultivating the dexterous use of the hands, the correct judgment of the eyes, and an elementary taste for good form and colour, with a certain amount of muscular control and equivalent powers of concentration and will: 'It is the output of energy in purposeful action that develops and strengthens the will.'

The post-primary courses continue the work of the primary department with special emphasis on the development of skill in the constructive crafts. Scope is given for more accurate

workmanship, demanding clear thinking and increased powers of concentration, and at the same time fostering a love of the beautiful. The children are trained in initiative to overcome difficulties, and so become the masters of their environment, instead of the helpless victims of circumstance.

The practical child of ability is given the opportunity to become a Watt, a Grinling Gibbons, or a Gilbert Scott! On the other hand, for certain so-called 'backward' rural children (judged by academic Intelligence Tests) in both junior and senior departments, handwork and crafts are not only the natural means of achieving intellectual development but may be a valuable corrective for dissipating any faulty mental adjustments or inhibitions which may already have been set up by an unconscious resistance to 'bookish' methods of instruction, thereby giving the child that psychological release so essential for a return to the normal.

#### *Types of Senior Handwork*

- I. Expressional work (carried to an advanced stage for illustrating the school lessons).



*Orchestra in a Rural School—Instruments all made by the Children*



## II. Traditional crafts.

## I. Constructive Crafts.

- (a) Woodwork—cabinet work and simple wood carving.
- (b) Metal-work.
  - (i) Bench-work—a course of models for tool manipulation.
  - (ii) Repoussé work—in thin pewter, brass, nickel and copper; also heavier work on sand-bags and pitch blocks.
  - (iii) Silver work—use of blow-pipe for simple jewellery, simple engraving on silver and copper.
- (c) Woodwork and Metal-work (combined).
  - (i) Garden apparatus (including farm requisites).
  - (ii) Science apparatus—in connection with practical science, mathematics, etc., e.g. wireless sets, theodolites, etc.
  - (iii) Musical instruments—the making of pipes (flageolets, recorders, etc.) and viols for the school orchestra.

## 2. Book Crafts.

- (a) Paper and Card Modelling—expressional and constructive.
- (b) Book-binding—from Christmas cards to multi-section books.
- (c) Block cutting—stick painting and lino and maple blocks for school magazine, etc.
- (d) Lettering on paper and wood.

## 3. Leather-work.

Soft leather-work (suède, sheepskin, etc.) and modelling and staining on calf.

## 4. Textile Crafts.

- (a) Raffia—plaiting, weaving, etc.
- (b) Coiled basketry—application of primitive pattern, etc.
- (c) Cane-work—various weaves on cane and three-ply bases.
- (d) Weaving—darning on cards; then lath looms with single heddle; then 4-heddle hand and foot looms. Rug and tapestry weaving on school-made looms.
- (e) Lace-making—with bobbins and pillows (school-made).
- (f) Knotting, Netting and Plaiting—fibre mats, net bags, etc.

## 5. Plastic Crafts.

- (a) Clay, Plasticine and Wax Modelling (expressional and creative).
- (b) Gesso Work (decorative).
- (c) Casting—plaster and cement; also metal-casting in sandboxes.

## 6. Domestic and Scientific Crafts.

- (a) Needlework—decorative and constructive needlework taken as a craft.
- (b) Upholstery—stools, seats, chairs, mattresses, etc.
- (c) Cookery, Laundry and Housewifery—in specially equipped classroom.
- (d) Gardening—in school garden.

In the preliminary stages the children should learn the elements of design almost unconsciously, through imitation of good designs displayed by the teacher on samplers or specimen models. In the senior stage, however, the need for some organization of this accumulated knowledge becomes evident; and formal lessons on design should form an important part of the senior drawing course.

The children should be taught to look upon design as a fundamental part of construction, and not as an extraneous decoration superimposed upon the finished article; and it should be carefully pointed out that the design of school craftwork should be in keeping with the best tradition of that particular craft, having regard mainly to use and nature of the material.

With a store of knowledge concerning good design and a well-developed taste for form and colour, the children should be able to branch out in simple efforts of creative design which express their own individual personalities along correct traditional lines.

*Conclusion*

One of the most obvious defects in the life of the nation to-day is the deplorable lack of skill in the masses, especially in the pursuits connected with leisure time. This skill has been lost since machinery has taken over the work of the cottage-craftsman, and we must re-cultivate, by means of school crafts, some of this potential skill, which is probably the greatest undeveloped asset in the country at the present time.





*Painting Toys at Francis Parker School, Illinois, U.S.A.*



*The Printing Room at Tyringe School, Sweden*



# Craftwork in One American School

MARY E. PIERCE

CRAFTWORK, as carried on in The Park School of Cleveland, is developed with two distinct aims: to supplement, and correlate with, group and individual projects and activities, and to serve as a means for purely creative expression. A brief discussion of the first of these is the purpose of this article.

Before giving a description of one particular project, it might be helpful to state the type of work that is done both in the 'shop' and in the 'studio'.

These two departments, while entirely separate and in charge of individual teachers, are in adjoining rooms, which makes it possible to throw them together whenever desired by the simple process of opening a large double door. This arrangement is of value, as it facilitates the easy moving of scenery constructed of wood or beaver board from the shop into the studio for painting and decorating.

The shop is equipped with the usual benches for woodwork and is well supplied with hammers, saws, planes, chisels, etc. A small forge is at one side. Partitioned off in one corner is a print shop with a press and type cases. In another corner, also partitioned, is the photographic dark room. A third corner is set aside for the painting, staining and finishing of woodwork.

The studio contains a potter's wheel, a bench and the necessary tools for metal work (pewter, brass, copper and silver), easels for painting, modelling clay, paints, dyes, a variety of paper

and cardboard, a costume box, and numerous miscellaneous accessories.

For a number of years the school has presented a play or some form of entertainment for the large groups of children from all parts of the city who attend the Saturday afternoon programme of the Cleveland Museum of Art. Such a project demands for its development teacher and student co-operation, as well as group discussion. In this case the Sixth

Grade assumed the general responsibility for putting through the plan, and a French play was proposed. As the idea grew, it was found necessary to enlist the help of children from the Second Grade (7- and 7½-year-olds) on up to the Sixth Grade (11½- and 12-year-olds).

The title finally decided upon for the play was 'In the Luxembourg

Gardens'—the acts being as follows:

- Act I. Alsatian Nurses with their children in the garden.
- Act II. The Wandering Minstrel (children dance and sing).
- Act III. A Puppet Show.
- Act IV. A Fairy Play at Night (with dance).

Then followed the organization of committee and volunteers for various jobs incident upon carrying out such an enterprise. In planning committees, work was so distributed as to appeal to the interest and ability of different ages. The Third and Fourth Grades, with the occasional help of older children, built and painted the scenery as designed by the Sixth Grade, under the guidance of the French



*Making and Painting Scenery*



teacher, whose efforts were supplemented by the Art and Shop instructors. The Fifth and Sixth Grades made properties, the Sixth Grade giving special attention to the designing, making and dressing of puppets or marionette dolls of papier mâché. Properties included balustrades and formal trees (constructed of wood and of beaver board), and back drops and 'sets' for the puppet stage. Such costumes as were used for the cast in the play were made by different children. Their teachers helped them to draft patterns and directed somewhat the work of designing the necessary costumes.

During the time when the play was under construction, French lessons were devoted to learning the conversation and songs to be given. Music hours were given over to songs and dances for the play, and everyone's regular shop and studio periods, as well as their spare moments, were spent in working on scenery, properties and costumes.

The work of the play was divided as follows:  
Developing and planning of play—Sixth Grade and French teacher.

Scenery—Third and Fourth Grades.

Costumes—Individuals of different groups and teachers.

Marionettes, stage and properties—Sixth Grade.

Dances—Second, Third, Fifth and Sixth Grades.

Songs—All groups.

From this list of activities one sees that each group's problems allowed many children to participate and afforded a rich opportunity for the pooling of ideas and an exchange of learning. An experience of this kind gives the opportunity for a certain fundamental educational process. Instead of learning how to use and sharpen a plane because this is on the list of techniques for Grade X, such a situation as the one described makes the use of the plane necessary, because a smooth surface must be achieved, so that the beaver board may lie flat and be fastened securely. In other words, the technique is given as the need arises. The use of the plane and the technique involved is simply a means to the end—that of making the scenery satisfactorily.

On the other hand, a somewhat graded arrangement for the use of tools is also considered,

and certain simple problems must be mastered before a child can go far afield, and use with safety and success the tools that require a certain amount of skill and strength. That is why the Third and Fourth Grades made such of the scenery as required only an ability to hammer nails and saw wood and beaver board. The sets and scenes of a more delicate nature were made by the Sixth graders, who have naturally greater experience and skill.

The programmes for this play were mimeographed by the school office. Now, however, since the pupils have learned to operate the simple printing press and to set type, a project such as this would have the programmes printed by a committee, and probably decorated by a block print. The children also print many of the invitations for school activities, such as the Christmas Candlelight Carol Service, the spring-time play, and similar entertainments.

Obviously, the success of such a project as has been described is largely dependent upon interested, enthusiastic, resourceful boys and girls; a high type of teacher co-operation which makes a thorough understanding of purpose and plans essential; a programme sufficiently flexible to allow for periods when different groups may intermingle and work together. Such an undertaking calls for the energies and activities of children of various ages.

In the Junior High School (12- to 15-year-olds) a programme is in force which permits of a free hour each morning when boys and girls have leisure time to devote to chorus or orchestra, special science, reading, shop, studio and the school magazine. It is understood that they must be up to standard in their regular work if they are to have this free period. On occasion, if a play or an assembly or some group business is at hand, this free period may be used in preparing for it.

In the three upper grades of Park School the pressure of examinations necessitates a slightly restricted programme, but proper allocating of time makes special projects entirely possible.

The value of such school projects lies in the social adjustment involved and in the group effort demanded for their success. The necessary craftwork done by the children plays an important part in all such activities.



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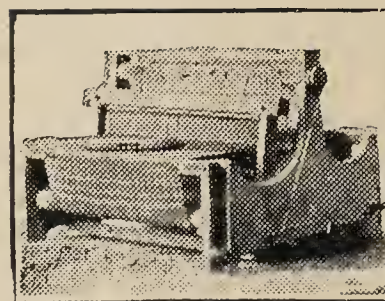
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# International Notes

## NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION OF GREAT BRITAIN

IN answer to a question put by Mr. Daggar in the House of Commons on Feb. 1st, Sir Donald Maclean stated that—'Between the beginning of July, 1929, and the end of August, 1931, 18 Nursery Schools were recognized for the first time by the Board of Education. In 13 of these cases the plans had been approved during the same period. Since the end of August, 1931, 5 further schools have received recognition, plans in all these cases having been approved before that date and after July, 1929. Plans for 10 further schools were approved between the beginning of July, 1929, and the end of August, 1931, and for one further school since the latter date. Apart from one voluntary proposal which has been abandoned, most of these 11 schools are either already opened, though not yet formally recognized, or are approaching completion.'

With regard to the situation in Scotland, it was stated recently in reply to a question in Parliament that—'by the 31st of July, 1931, there were 21 Nursery Schools or ordinary schools containing nursery classes in Scotland. Of these 8 were conducted by Education Authorities, one by a Provincial Committee for the Training of Teachers, and 12 by voluntary managers. The total number of children in attendance was 676. In addition, there were in Glasgow 14 centres conducted by the Education Authority at which children of nursery school age received attention.'

The Nursery School Association Executive circulated, during the third week in February, a letter to a number of organizations responsible for the administration of funds for the relief of distress—as well as to the Press—urging that the nursery school constitutes one of the most truly economical and best ways of meeting the needs of struggling homes, and that open-air shelters, where little children can receive skilled care and nurture, are now a pressing need.

On February 26th, Accrington Road Nursery School, the new Nursery School in Burnley, was officially opened by Sir George Newman in the presence of a large and representative gathering, presided over by Alderman H. Lees, J.P., Chairman of the Special Service Committee of the Education Committee. The school has been built in a congested area where, within a radius of a quarter of a mile, there are over 300 children between two and five who do not attend the Infants School. The school is planned for 160 children on the most modern lines. It is an open-air type of building, with two sets of cloakrooms and bathrooms. It is heated by radiation, and electric hot water heaters supply the water for washing purposes. The Staff consists of Superintendent, three trained and certificated assistant teachers, and four student-teachers. The cost per head per annum is estimated to be £13. 6s 8d. of which 50 per cent will be met by a Board of Education Grant.

After the opening words of the Chairman, Sir George Newman gave an address in which he emphasized the function of the Nursery School as one of the instruments by which the battle for human survival, health, and high capacity must be won for the nation. There should be as many nursery schools as infants schools. Every school should be an open-air school and every infants school should be a nursery school.

Grace Owen



## OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST

### Educational Conferences to be held this Summer

Atlanta, Georgia, U.S.A.: *American Home Economics Association*: June 20th to 25th.

Frankfurt-am-Main, Germany: *International Conference on Social Work*: July 10th to 14th.

Los Angeles, U.S.A.: *First International Recreation Congress*: July 23rd to 29th.

Honolulu: *Regional Conference of the World Federation of Educational Associations*: July 25th to 30th.

Edinburgh, Scotland: *International Federation of University Women*: July 27th to August 4th.

Nice, France: *Sixth World Conference of the New Education Fellowship*: July 29th to August 12th.

Nice, France: *Second International Montessori Congress*: July 30th to August 12th.

Copenhagen, Denmark: *Tenth International Congress of Psychology*: August 22nd to 27th.



### Summer Schools

Sixth Vienna Summer School: June 16th to August 10th.

Summer School of Individual Psychology, Semmering, near Vienna (Director: Dr. Alfred Adler): June 20th to July 10th.

Training in Dramatic Art:

London, July 11th to 23rd.

Stratford, July 25th to August 6th.

Malvern, August 8th to 20th.

Oxford Summer School: July 27th to August 4th.

The following publications give useful information concerning holiday courses in Europe:

*Holiday Courses in England and Wales*, 1932, obtainable from H.M. Stationery Office, Adastral House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2.

*Ferienkurse in Deutschland*, 1932. Obtainable from Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst, E. V., Berlin C 2, Schloss.

*Holiday Courses in Europe*, 1932. Compiled by the League of Nations Institute of Intellectual Co-operation. Published in English, French and German, and obtainable from Humphrey Milford, Oxford University Press, 11 Warwick Square, London, E.C.4 (price 1/-), also from the following: The World Peace Foundation, 40 Mount Vernon



● *Make a note now that the*

**6TH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE**  
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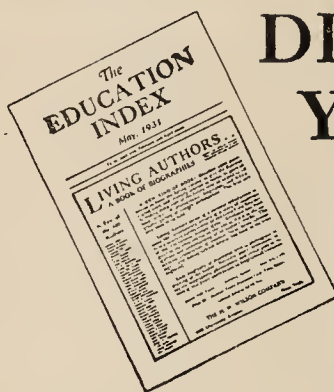
JULY 29th-AUGUST 12th, 1932. The Travel and Accommodation arrangements, Pre- and Post-Conference Tours, etc., are being planned now by the OFFICIAL TRAVEL AGENTS FOR THE CONFERENCE—

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**LONDON, May 30th to July 22nd, 1932.**

The Course will consist of Lectures, medical, psychological and pedagogical; Classes in hand-work, music and art; Visits to schools, institutions and clinics; and a period of School Practice.

Fee £12. 12s. 0d. Detailed prospectus and application form may be obtained from Miss EVELYN Fox, 24 Buckingham Palace Road, S.W.1. Closing date for applications, April 30th, 1932.



Street, Boston, Mass., U.S.A. (price 50 cents); Librairie Vuibert, 63 Boulevard St. Germain, Paris, 6e. (price 5 frs.); Alfred Lorentz, Kurprinzstrasse 10, Leipzig (price 1 mark).



### The Second International Montessori Congress

will be held at Nice during the period covered by the N.E.F. Conference. Dr. Montessori is giving one of the main lectures at the latter conference.

The Montessori Congress will include a series of lecture-demonstrations by Dr. Montessori herself on the teaching of arithmetic and geometry in accordance with her method. There will also be a general assembly of the International Montessori Society, and various group meetings to discuss matters of importance to the movement in different parts of the world.

Persons not already acquainted with the Montessori Method will have here an excellent opportunity of meeting Dr. Montessori in person and of hearing her speak, thus gaining in the best way a first idea of her work. It is hoped that members will be able to visit a demonstration class. Past students of her work will at the same time have an opportunity of hearing about its latest developments, and thus keeping themselves abreast with additions which Dr. Montessori has recently been making at a very rapid rate, especially in the subjects of which she intends to treat.

The fee for attendance at the Montessori Congress is £2. 10s. 0d. A combined ticket admitting both to it and to the N.E.F. Conference is to be obtained for £3. 10s. 0d., on application either to the Conference Secretary, 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1, England, or to the Secretaries of the Montessori Congress.



### Germany

It is little consolation for teachers in one country to learn of the plight of teachers in other lands, but it is particularly distressing for friends of the new education movement to learn of the drastic closing decided on by the Prussian Government, owing to financial reasons, of so many of the Prussian

Pedagogical Academies set up by Dr. C. H. Becker after the war. It is unfortunate that Dr. Becker himself, who has only just returned to Europe from China, was not in Germany to undertake their defence before the decision was reached.

It is particularly sad that this should have happened at a moment when it looks as though education may be once again dragged at the heels of politics in Germany, as a result of the impending presidential and Prussian elections.



### Great Britain

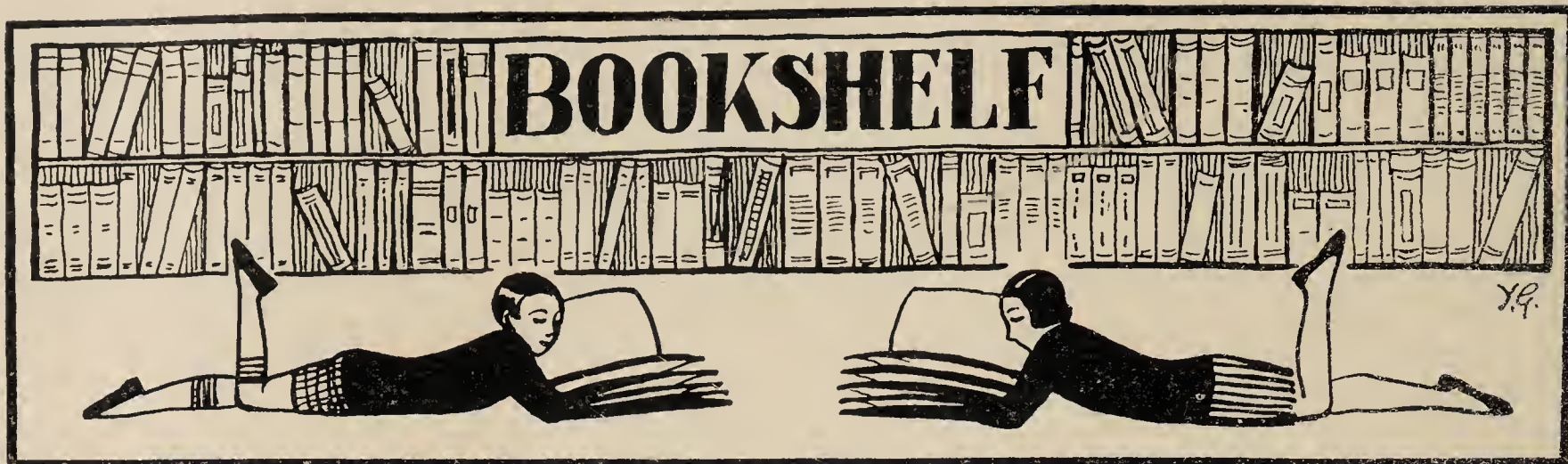
*Corporal Punishment.*—At the General Monthly Meeting of the Abertillery Local Education Authority held on January 26th, 1932, the following resolution was passed: That all Head and Assistant Teachers in the Committee's employ be informed immediately that corporal punishment is to be abolished in all schools under the Authority's control, and that any member of the teaching staff not adhering to such resolution, after the receipt of such notification, be subject to dismissal.

*School Broadcasting.*—The Central Council for School Broadcasting recently proposed to issue a list of apparatus which has been approved as suitable for use in schools, and has arranged with the British Broadcasting Corporation for special school Reception Tests to be broadcast three times a week.

The next step was to ensure that sufficiently large numbers of teachers were experimenting with broadcast lessons under the right conditions, psychological as well as material. Reception must be satisfactory and the minds of all those connected with the schools must be attuned to the idea. Broadcast lessons had passed from the 'crank' stage and the 'stunt' stage. They must now be tried out, not either for novelty's sake or under unfavourable conditions, but as a new instrument for education in a changing world.

*Biological Films.*—Particulars about hiring terms and contents of biological films for schools (prepared by Mrs. Clayton under the advice of Dame Mary Scharlieb, Professor Winifred Cullis, Professor Cyril Burt, Dr. I. Feldman and Dr. P. A. Clements) may be obtained from the British Social Hygiene Council, Carteret House, Carteret Street, Westminster, S.W.1.





**Conference on Examinations.** Edited by Paul Monroe. Bureau of Publications, Teachers' College, Columbia University. 1931.

On 23rd, 24th and 25th May, 1931, distinguished representatives of England, France, Germany, Scotland, Switzerland and the United States met at Eastbourne (England), under the auspices of the Carnegie Corporation and the International Institute of Teachers' College; the subject of discussion was examinations, the motive being 'to explore a major educational problem that had varying aspects in various countries'. This book is a verbatim report of the Conference proceedings.

'Explore' is indeed the right word; for this conference was intended to define particular problems that can only be solved by detailed and intensive work in the future, carried out in different countries. Such work will proceed, largely as a result of the conference; and we must await its findings. But in the meantime, this book is of extraordinary interest and importance. For the members did not confine their discussions to matters of examination technique, or indeed to examinations at all: they found it necessary to investigate from the foundations the aim of the education that is to be assessed by examinations. Hence the book is in fact a work on comparative education, and all the better because it is made up of the informal talk of men who really understand the needs of their respective countries: it is in fact a dialogue, and the dialogue remains the finest literary form for the discovery of truth—though one must add, not unkindly, that a book like this increases one's admiration for Plato's artistic skill.

In his opening address Dr. Paul Monroe mentions four 'major phases' of the study of examinations. They are used as (1) a means of instruction; (2) a form of educational administration; (3) the control of admission to various employments and to government service; and (4) largely arising from the last, as a means of social control. The discussions turned mainly on the two last uses, and a number of fundamentally important questions arose, e.g. Is a written examination the best means of selecting an élite for governmental or other service? The Civil Service examinations for England and India have on the whole succeeded; that being agreed, is the reason for their success that they tested the G factor, or that in addition they tested something else (such as an emotional

factor)? (By the way, it is remarkable how far-seeing Macaulay was in his advocacy of competitive examinations so far back as 1833.) Again, Dr. Delisle Burns raises the further question, will the needs of a changing world be served by the old type of examination? 'I doubt', he says, 'whether the type of person who ran the machinery of government well between 1870 and 1910 is really useful in the modern state. . . . We want the kind of person who understands the sort of job that has to be done by modern government. Therefore I think that we need new tests to discover that kind of person, but we have not discovered what kind of test would give us the person that we hope for.' The old tests were devised to measure *culture générale*, *allgemeine Bildung*; to Dr. Burns this seems an obsolete conception, that of 'eighteenth century gentility, belonging to the so-called upper classes', and in any case far too exclusively literary. Much of the book is indeed taken up with discussions of *culture générale*; the French still believe in it implicitly as an ideal, and claim to assess it by their examinations. The objection to their essay type of examination is of course that it lacks objectivity, and so cannot be standardized with any certainty; to which they reply that 'tact' is more important than objectivity, and that the 'short answer' type of paper, advocated by several American speakers, misses imponderabilia that really count for more than anything else. The trouble with the ordinary sort of examination is that its aims are too vague, or at any rate too complex; it seeks to measure knowledge, G, and other ill-defined factors, all at the same time. Yet experience seems to show that, just because it does, however blindly, measure these factors, it has succeeded reasonably well. 'Character', as Professor Spearman says, 'though a little correlated with G, is in general a different thing. You should never expect of anybody, because he passed a test that involves G. . . on that ground alone, that his subsequent life should be at all satisfactory.' There are in fact two questions to be asked about any sort of test or examination: (1) what does it measure? (2) is it an accurate measure? Neither can be answered satisfactorily about the old-fashioned examination. Yet it worked; just as our ordinary sensible diet worked before vitamins had ever been heard of. There seems no reason why more scientific examinations should not be devised, which would deliberately include all the Vitamin factors, as



one might call them; it is admitted that so far the 'short answer' tests have been aimed only at certain factors. As an example of the new type of test may be given the work of O'Rourke at the Research Division of the U.S. Federal Civil Service, described by Professor Thorndike; as the result of ten years' critical examination of innumerable tests, Dr. O'Rourke can prepare, like a prescription, something that will discover the qualities needed for any kind of job that turns up. To such vocational selection, coupled of course with vocational guidance, we must pin our hopes for the future of the world. As things are, unsuitable examinations control the work of the great majority of children; in order to pass examinations that now turn out to be of doubtful selective validity they are forced to learn all sorts of things that will not help them in their future work or leisure—and through lack of tests or bad tests, they mostly get into uncongenial occupations. There are many important questions about the conduct of examinations (some of which are discussed in this book); but far more important is their social effect, which is here treated in an illuminating and indeed revolutionary way. From the investigations that will follow this preliminary inquiry startling results may be expected.

*F. A. Cavenagh*

**Yearbook of Education, 1932.** Edited by Lord Eustace Percy. 35s. Evans Bros. Ltd.

This is a monumental work. Though comprising a thousand pages, it is built up on a clear plan. The volume falls into three parts, covering educational affairs in Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the British Commonwealth of Nations, and in foreign countries respectively. The breadth of treatment can be gauged from a glance at the various sections of each part. For example, Section 2 of Part I contains no less than 18 sub-sections, some of which deal with the Junior and Senior Schools, Secondary Schools in England, Wales, Scotland or Northern Ireland, Private and Preparatory Schools, and so forth. Another Section deals with Technical Schools of all types; and still another with the Universities. Health Services also come under review.

The education arrangements of the Commonwealth and of foreign countries, including America and Russia, are similarly treated.

The introductions and annotations, sometimes of considerable length, are supplied by Lord Eustace Percy, whose interest in education is more than a passing one. Lord Eustace possesses definite opinions; indeed, in some instances, as in the chapter on Religious Education, he sets forth ideas with which many will disagree. All the contributors are well qualified for their task and, in most cases, are well-known authorities. Sir Percy Nunn, Dr. Dorothy Brock and Frank Roscoe are outstanding examples. Those who attended the British Commonwealth Education Conference at Bedford College last July will be particularly interested in the contribution on *Education in the British Dependencies in Tropical Africa*, by the Rt. Hon. W. Ormsby Gore, M.P.

It is impossible to do more than merely indicate the contents of this large-scale work. It is not a book to be

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By Dr. R. SCHULZE. Illustrated. 16s. Translated by Rudolf Pintner.

Museum Street, London, W.C.1



read through, but to have handy for constant reference; there is scarcely an educational problem on which this volume will not set one right. It contains a very full index, and an excellent bibliography.

One may add that the scheme of the book contains within itself all sorts of possibilities. The whole field of educational practice awaits treatment. To the publishers, one may offer congratulations on their enterprise in satisfying a real need, and an expression of the hope that a work so well begun may be expanded from time to time.

A. J. Lynch

**A Children's Symphony.** *Satis M. Coleman.*  
*Lincoln School of Teachers College Publications.*

'Humanized music-teaching' is the description I should like to give this absorbingly interesting book, in which Mrs. Coleman allows us to look into her years of wonderful creative work with children. Devoted to the special realm of musical expression, the natural outcome of her work is a set of three symphonies, written by the children and the teacher and executed by a large orchestra of girls and boys from about 8½ to 12 years of age. The children played partly on instruments of their own make; all of them had previously approached music by means of making instruments themselves, for instance: drums, marimkas, flageolets, etc.

Although perhaps startling at first sight, nothing can be more true or more logical than this development, which allows the child to retrace exactly the evolution of the art of music and its means of expression through the ages. The best way is—and has always been—to *do* the thing! But in our time, when minds are unbalanced by too much learning and barren knowledge, it seems an heroic achievement just to be simple and to be yourself in matters of artistic expression, and not to let inferiority and other 'it's-not-done' complexes kill one's intentions before they have even reached an active state.

Mrs. Coleman's book shows a happy straightforwardness which must make her an ideal teacher of children. It may be that different conditions prevailing in European countries, for instance, would call for adaptations of her course of studies, as recommended in Part III of her book. But it would be difficult to find a more convincing and inspiring guide to the general reform of music teaching in schools and training colleges for future music teachers.

Charlotte Blensdorf

**Pottery in the Making.** *By Dora Lunn. (Dryad Press.) 6s.*

In every way *Pottery in the Making* fulfils its purpose. It is a delightful handbook for teachers and beginners, written by a potter who not only obviously knows her craft but who has exceptional gifts as a teacher. All processes of pot-making, from the most primitive pots to those made on the wheel, are described in careful

detail and with great clarity. The essentials have been selected without cumbersome explanations making the book most suitable for those on the threshold of this fascinating craft, while the many illustrations further the interest.

Mary G. Drummond

**Magic Sesame.** *A Collection of Poems for Boys and Girls. Made by J. Compton (Methuen & Co., Ltd. London. Complete 3s.; the three parts separately limp cloth, 1s. 3d. each, cloth boards, 1s. 6d.).*

Grown-ups and children already acquainted with *Open Sesame*, Mr. Compton's collection of poems and rhymes for children, will take up *Magic Sesame* with that anticipatory pleasure which knows it is secure from disappointment. The range of these new poems is from Chaucer to the present Poet Laureate and, as the preface states, contemporary poets are well represented so that poetry may be realized as an essential element in the art of living for us and for all ages.

The poems are not chronologically arranged. Tennyson, Newbolt, Browning, Bunyan and Longfellow are in friendly proximity with each other, with a couple of old ballads to link them together, and Shakespeare has as his comrades on different occasions: Flecker, Fletcher, Masfield, Sidney, Clare and Dowland. It is pleasant to find Goldsmith's 'The Clown's Reply', Marjorie Fleming's 'Sonnet to a Monkey', Byron's 'A Jacobite Toast', Lewis Carroll's 'How doth the Little Crocodile', Edward Lear's 'The Quangle Wangle's Hat', Canning's 'The Elderly Gentleman', and Bret Harte's 'Plain Language from Truthful James', among the more frolicsome pieces.

Mr. Compton's happy choice has fallen upon a number of poems and verses that touch the imagination and the heart and that most people would not have had the insight to present to children. Of these a few may be mentioned: Allingham's 'Four Ducks on a Pond'; W. H. Davies' 'A Great Time' and 'A Thought'; Clare's 'Beanfield' and 'The Vixen'; Padraic Colum's 'An Old Woman of the Roads'; 'The Cherry-Tree Carol'; E. Wyndham Tennant's 'Home Thoughts in Laventie'; Herrick's 'Nightpiece'; Byrd's 'If in Thine Heart'; Herbert's 'Heaven'; G. M. Hopkins' 'Pied Beauty'; Brown's 'On the Countess Dowager of Pembroke'; Poe's 'To Helen'; Fletcher's 'Man His Own Star'; Sidney's 'Sleep'; Pope's 'Ode on Solitude'; and Edward Thomas's 'Words'. (But where is J. B. Nichols' 'On the Toilet Table of Queen Marie Antoinette'?)

The old favourites are here too to thrill the blood: 'Sir Patrick Spens', 'Simon Danz', 'John Gilpin', 'How They Brought the Good News from Ghent to Aix', 'Pibroch of Donuil Dhu', 'The Armada'—but what use is there in choosing when all are already chosen?



# Education for Life

**Education for Life, A Danish Pioneer, Noëlle Davies** (*Williams & Norgate, 7s. 6d.*)

**The Folk Highschools of Denmark and the Development of a Farming Community, Lund, Bagtrup & Manniche** (*Oxford University Press, 3s. 6d.*)

**Education in Denmark, Edited by Boge, Borup & Rützebeck** (*Oxford University Press, 7s. 6d.*)

Why is it that the name of Bishop Grundtvig, the Danish prophet and educational reformer, has come so much into the foreground in recent years? It is not only because his Folk Highschools have called the attention of the educational world to the mysterious relationship between the rapid development of a farming community in a small country, and a free, broad and idealistic public enlightenment. It is also because many of the modern school reformers have found that their ideas were expressed some hundred years ago in the numerous and profound, though sometimes obscure, writings of this remarkable man, who was both visionary and practical reformer.

In a recent book, *Education for Life, A Danish Pioneer*, Dr. Noëlle Davies gives us an insight into Grundtvig's life. His childhood in a Zealand vicarage was a happy one, but his school life was dry and barren, so that the keen imaginative interest in nature and history, inspired by his mother, disappeared, and he reached university age 'cold, sluggish and dull.' His personal experiences, his disappointment in the official schools, gave him his educational ideas. The child, he argues, is like a young plant which must be kept fresh and green in the early spring. Nor, in the period of adolescence, must young people be shut up with pen and book: in these years their best schools are the farms and workshops, where they can gain a real interest in the work by which they shall live afterwards, and be educated in concrete matters.

His Folk Highschool was, and still is, a school for life, not for a position in life. It aims, largely through the living and enlightened study of history, at awakening a desire for a fuller and more harmonious life.

*The Folk Highschools of Denmark and the Development of a Farming Community* tells how Grundtvig's ideas, through the Folk Highschools, influenced the development of a co-operative commonwealth; there the advantages of intensive small-scale farming were united with those of large-scale industry in co-operative dairies and bacon factories. Here, as also in Dr. Noëlle Davies' book, Grundtvig's influence on the primary and secondary schools of Denmark is shown. His disciples among the elementary school teachers soon made war upon the old system of learning by rote and mechanical repetition, and replaced it by more living methods. This revolution in method was hastened by the establishment of numerous private, or 'free' schools (*Friskoler*) the pioneer of which was the famous *Friskole* set up by Kristen Kold in the early 'fifties.

Kristen Kold, known as the Danish Socrates, gathered a school around him wherever he went. So strong and original was his personality that he was able to keep his pupils together, although he gradually dropped any definite time-table, imparting his knowledge and philosophy to the students through the medium of talks on history or reminiscences of his own life, whilst his fellow-teachers took charge of the more 'practical' classes.

The Folk Highschools of Denmark are private institutions, supported but not controlled by the State, though in so politically minded a democracy it is natural that a great many educational activities should be arranged between private initiative and the State or community. There are some sixty Highschools, and between one-third and one-fourth of the rural population have, at least once in their life-time, attended one of their winter courses for men (November to March) or one of their summer courses for women (May to July).

*Education in Denmark* gives a comprehensive view of Danish popular education, and its development during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The late Harald Jensen writes about the Workers' Educational Association, which he greatly helped to found. The Association, less in touch with the Universities than is the English W.E.A., has no political aim, but is entirely educational, the only such centre for the principal Danish labour organizations. Oluf Berthold, the Danish W.E.A. representative on the Broadcasting Board (which contains nominees from the Ministry of Education and Listeners' Associations), writes about radio, which has a proportionally greater number of listeners-in in Denmark than in any other country.

Other chapters deal with library work, which is built upon co-operation between the large and small libraries; physical training, which is strongly influenced by Niels Bukh, the found of the so-called 'original' or 'fundamental' gymnastics; adult education through evening schools; University Extension work; Y.M.C.A.'s; technical schools; domestic service; handicraft and agriculture; folk highschools, including Askov, the greatest and best known of them all; and the International Peoples' College at Elsinore, which opens its doors to foreign students.

Mr. G. J. Arvin, one of the spokesmen for New Education, writes about lines of development in the present school. He comes to the conclusion that, in the native country of Grundtvig, it should be easy for a school provided with all the material necessities for handicraft instruction, not only for the school work proper but also for the children's spare time employment, to adopt the principles of New Education. But he maintains that the schools of to-day are still too busy with the knowledge-cramming against which Grundtvig and Kold reacted.

Peter Manniche,  
*International Peoples' College,*  
*Denmark.*



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# THE NEW ERA

## IN HOME AND SCHOOL

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### Outlook Tower

‘THE child is father to the man.’ This paradox of the nineteenth century has been proved to be sober truth in the twentieth. The new psychology insists that the behaviour pattern of the adult is largely the product of habits formed during early childhood. This doctrine can leave the educator in no doubt as to the gravity of his task. The reactions of the child in nursery and schoolroom to parents, teachers and his fellows will determine his reactions in later life to employers, employees, fellow-citizens, to his mate and to children of his own.

#### *Faulty Education and World Problems*

Consider for a moment how many of our present social evils are engendered in the schoolroom. The criminal code throughout the civilized world is cruel and wasteful. It cannot claim to be either preventative or curative. Does it differ, except in degree, from the old-fashioned methods of punishing children? Weakness and poverty have been considered fit subjects for oppression. Are not all children who are treated without proper respect oppressed, either by an excess of affection or the reverse? Insane competition in industry and armaments has brought civilization to the verge of annihilation; is not the competitive spirit that has hitherto been fostered in the school equally soul-destroying? Finally, look at the average means of employing leisure time: betting, watching, other people play games, going to the cinema and borrowing from the fiction library. A well-known industrial leader, writing to us on the subject lately, said: ‘The progress of science has run so far ahead of what we may broadly term educational developments, that man is stranded lonely upon the rocks of unemployment or of idleness, with no

outlook other than excitement or despair. It had been better if science and mechanization had advanced less rapidly and if the worker had continued to work longer hours, till through education he was prepared for leisure; but how small a proportion of even the *so-called* most highly educated among us can use leisure to any good purpose?’ Yet what leisure can the average school child snatch between school, compulsory games and homework? And what chances has he or she of finding any creative or recreative employment for free-time?

Having indicated briefly certain undesirable behaviour patterns that have been engendered in childhood, let us consider as briefly what type of situation our children are likely to have to face, and therefore what responses are likely to be demanded of them.

#### *Democracy and World Citizenship*

In the first place, though democracy, or government by the common man, has been discarded by two of the great modern nations, it is still on trial among the rest of us. We are pledged to bide by the opinion of the majority, and we are therefore pledged to educate the opinion of the majority, so that it may be made secure from the influences of irresponsible demagogue or inflammatory press. Such education, to be adequate, must give training of the head to weigh and sift evidence; training of character to recognize and shoulder responsibility and, most important of all, training of the heart to accept the old and difficult lesson: Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself.

In the second place, this governing that the common man is called upon to do is a far more complicated business than ever it was. It is no longer a matter of caring for the safety and well-



being of one's own country. The peace and prosperity of each nation is closely linked with the peace and prosperity of its neighbours, and the world is so close-knit nowadays that we are all in this sense neighbours. Finance, economics, armaments, the combating of disease, these and many other questions have come to be world problems. The man in the street is become, willy-nilly, a world citizen and co-ruler of the common destiny of mankind.

He is unready for this task. He is required not merely to use but to forge tools for world governance. The whole thing has become too complicated. The plain man is tempted to shrug his shoulders and leave it to the specialists. But the specialists themselves are bewildered and their blunders recoil upon the plain man and cost him his livelihood and his security.

*Wanted: Initiative,  
Co-operation and Knowledge*  
new world?

How can we best  
train children to  
cope with this

First of all we must not curb and discourage the child's experimental and adventurous approach to life. The intent and curious purposefulness that leads a small child to stagger and then to walk, in spite of bumps and bruises, should lead him to tackle larger problems as they arise. The whole process of living and learning should be motivated by his own desire to experiment and explore. By being fearful for the child we sap his impulse to grasp the nettle. We rob him of that courageous approach to life that alone can forge its way through our present difficulties.

Next, he must be carefully trained in human relationships. In learning to live with his fellows—elders, contemporaries and juniors—he will find all the discipline, all the practice in self-control and unselfishness, that he needs. But it must be realized that it is the duty of the educator, both parent and teacher, to give constant training in these virtues. Needless to say, this training will not lie in preaching, but neither will it lie in merely throwing the children together and letting them work out their own salvation. They must be taught to live and let live. Dr. Lee Vincent gives an excellent description of such teaching in this issue of the *New Era*. They must be taught generosity—not merely the good old nursery habit of hand-

ing round your sweets before you eat any yourself, but generosity of mind, that leads one to respect, and give free play to, a point of view one does not share. They must be taught self-reliance, so that they do not form a drag on the community, but they must also learn to make steady and as it were anonymous co-operative effort for a common cause. It has been found that self-government is a useful means of training in good citizenship—that by making, enforcing and modifying their own laws, children obtain a real insight into the organization of a community and into the mentality of non-conformity and the proper ways of handling it. One of our worst quarrels with orthodox education is that it gives too little *training* in co-operative living.

Finally, as Dr. Lester F. Ward has said: 'What the human race needs is not more brains but more knowledge.' It is time that we discarded our ideas of mental gymnastics as fitting employment for the eager and omnivorous wits of children. Give them more knowledge of the world about them. Make it possible for them to slake their insatiable curiosities about this curious and absorbing world, and as their judgment matures they will know where the problems lie, and will have a clearer chance of tackling them.

They must also be trained to a contributive attitude towards the group with which they are working. As Kilpatrick has said, when dealing with the management of discussion: 'Whoever contributes in a discussion thereby gives hostages to further interest and participation. . . . Personal reaction helps personal grasp. Contrariwise, merely to listen with no thought of other or further reaction is as a rule the poorest road to personal grasp.' Democracy needs not merely a body of citizens with enough civic conscience to vote at the polls, but a body of citizens who are willing to make personal contribution to the discussion of world problems and who will thus feel a personal responsibility in their solution. It is obvious that this contributive attitude cannot be engendered in a classroom where the only duty of the pupils is to listen passively and reproduce accurately what they have been taught. Children must be encouraged to 'give hostages to further interest and participation.'



*Progressive Education  
and World Problems*

We thus endorse Mr. Perry Dunlap-Smith's claim that there is a direct connection between the new type of education and the solution of world problems. By handling human nature more wisely in the school, we are likely to produce a change in the handling of human nature in home and factory and office, in national and international affairs. We are publishing two other articles on this theme in the current issue of the *New Era*. Angelo Patri, that great Italian schoolmaster in New York, who has done much to help children to develop along their own inherent lines, instead of attempting to force them into the traditional scholastic mould, points out how maladjusted personalities are being created and fostered through the present-day system of education. The children he writes of, the 'not wanted', grow up to form part of the dreary queues that may be seen outside any Labour Exchange, or, worse still, the hopeless thousands in the prisons of the world. We are spending vast sums in attempting to remove that which might have been prevented by a saner and more understanding education.

A constructive experiment in forestalling that sense of not being wanted is described by Mr. Burkitt, head of the Juvenile Instruction Centre, Belfast. There are many such schemes in existence, but Mr. Burkitt's work is distinguished by the particular type of human relationship which exists between the staff and the pupils and among the pupils themselves. The children of a community that is marked by particularly acute differences, both political and religious, are learning to work side by side in friendship and goodwill. This same state of affairs may be found wherever progressive thinkers and idealists have attempted to put the new education into practice in home or school.

A good progressive school contains the following elements: learning motivated by

interest; self-activity; rich and diversified curriculum, which gives each pupil a chance to find his own line of interest and thereby gain the confidence in himself that is necessary to social adjustment; self-government; a library and wide reading; debates; and investigation and discussion of current events.

*Human  
Relationships*

But, most important of all, there must be a right relationship between teachers and pupils, head and staff, between fellow-teachers, both in the junior and senior schools, and between teachers and parents. If there is a servile or disloyal relationship between head and staff, or teacher and pupil; if there is jealousy and a wish to score off one another among the teachers or between teacher and parent, the atmosphere of the school is a vicious one, which will leave a warping influence upon the child's mind for life.

'Our big problem' is to change the viewpoint of the teaching profession towards the goals of education. Our children will remember relatively little of the text-book or other information which the schools teach. The attitudes toward life and toward authority, toward honour, toward personal responsibility, toward happiness and beauty, built up in their daily school life, will be ingrained in their nervous systems. This is biological memory, and its curve of forgetting has never yet been plotted. To extend to all teachers a knowledge of the sources of attitudes, and to include in the teaching force only those men and women who see their task as the forming and maintaining of wholesome attitudes in themselves and in their children, this is the great challenge to our teacher training institutions and our school administrators.\*

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\* Dr. Elizabeth L. Woods: 'Proceedings of the 56th Conference of Social Work', San Francisco, 1929.



# The Key to To-Morrow—IV

## The Human Element in Industry

PERRY DUNLAP-SMITH

MANY deeply-rooted traditions and habits of the social order have been upset during the last few years. This has been an unpleasant experience to most of us, but it has forced the political and financial leaders of our civilization to come to a strangely unanimous agreement upon the current needs of society. These, they say, will have to be met if we are to bring some sort of order and stability out of the present chaos. Strangely enough these needs, as stated by men of affairs, very closely resemble those recognized thirty years ago by the founders of the new type of education.

Business men, financiers and statesmen who are seeking a solution to our present difficulties find it primarily in the elimination of fear. No very profound thought is needed to make us realize the devastating influence of fear upon our social life. Man, who first banded with his fellows through fear of common foes, has subjugated most of those foes, but is left in fear of his fellows. When that fear too is over-ridden—and only then—we may boast that we are civilized.

It may be noted in passing that the growth of the habit of insurance is a manifest attempt to allay on a vast scale the various fears of mankind. It is admittedly a materialistic attempt, possibly a retrogression to egotism, but on the other hand like other great materialistic enterprises it may bear spiritual fruit.

The most insidious fear in industry is the fear of being exploited. The capitalist fears that if he give an inch an ell may be required of him.

The worker fears that if he work a 7½-hour day to support a staggering industry he may be forced back into the preposterous working-day of his forbears. Even the most impartial arbitration is suspect for *fear* that the arbitrator may have been 'got at' by the other side. This is still true, if not universally, at least in many quarters. But an unbiased onlooker, however pessimistic, would admit that it is less true now than it was twenty years ago. There is perceptible a better relationship between employer and employee now than at any time since the growth of major

industry, and this improving relationship is the key to social reconstruction.

Let us look for the moment at the principles which the business leaders seem to regard as essential in the curiously changed social, economic and political structure in which we find ourselves caught and struggling to-day.

'For modern economic theory the most

important premise must be rapid change', says Dean Donham, of the Harvard Business School, in his recent book, *Business Adrift*. He is echoed by all the leading minds in the field of business administration. Few men are willing to predict what will be the conditions in any field even a year or six months hence. It seems inevitable that we must adjust ourselves to a constantly changing world and that we must learn how to meet these changes with efficiency as well as equanimity. We cannot hope that the changes to come will be any less drastic or less frequent than those we are now facing. The scientific technique of our engineers is being ever improved and perfected. The fund of tested

*Modern industry demands:*

*Adaptability*

*A co-operative spirit*

*Modern industry gives:*

*Increased leisure,*

*which must be creatively employed*

*The New School teaches:*

*not mere facts but constructive thinking;*

*not competition but co-operative living*

*and many creative activities for leisure-time*



NORTH SHORE COUNTRY  
DAY SCHOOL,  
WINNETKA, ILL.

*Right: The doll and animal hospital  
department of Santa Claus' Toy  
Shop*



*Left: A rehearsal of "Ruddigore."  
All costumes and scenery were  
designed and executed by the students*

*Right: Painting scenery for  
"Ruddigore"*



*Left: Building scenery for a Shake-  
spearean production—an outgrowth  
of the English class*



information and scientific truth is increasing, and, with each discovery of the scientist, we must look for new conquests over our environment which will bring about increasing changes in our social structure. Man may now look forward to the solution of almost any of the problems that have always perplexed, bewildered and fascinated him; but for the first time he has begun to doubt his ability to grapple with the changes which accompany the solution of these.

We have, as a race, constantly sought better living conditions and conveniences, but now we are beginning to wonder whether convenience should not be sacrificed in the interests of stability. The Victorian gentleman who wrote to the London *Times* protesting against the introduction of the telephone, because it would destroy the privacy of the home, was expressing just this idea. We did not realize then the changes that these inventions would make in our lives, for we had plenty of time to adapt ourselves to each as it arose. But now, before the social effects of the radio have been fully grasped, the 'talkies' introduce new possibilities and they in turn may be supplanted by television to-morrow. We have many instances in the United States of inventions being bought and held in secret by large companies, who would be the first to benefit by them, but who hesitate to turn new forces loose upon a world so unready to adjust to them. Also they envisage direful consequences to their competitors should the new process be precipitately adopted by the owning company.

This fear of crushing one's competitors to one's own undoing is another new factor in modern society. The ruthless nineteenth century slogan: 'Get on or get under' is giving place to a realization of our mutual interdependence. We were wont to put vain faith in various devices such as the Balance of Power, the constitution of the United States, or other political compromises. Now we begin to realize that our hope lies in the stability of motion, so well exemplified by the gyroscope, and are trying to understand what forces may secure this type of stability in a rapidly changing world. So also we once fostered the feeling of the independence of peoples and races; we took pride in our ability to live by our own efforts, and it was not only England who boasted of her 'splendid

isolation'. It is hard to realize, and will be harder to accommodate ourselves to, the fact that no one race or nation is really independent of the others. This condition too has been brought about by the scientists. Their ever-increasing speed of transport and communication bind us all more closely within a network of wires, rails and electrical vibrations. What should we do if we had to supply our own rubber or coffee or silk? Does it matter to us who starves in China or what Japan thinks fair in war? We know that it does. We realized it almost as soon as the Versailles Treaty was signed; for within a few years we saw the British taxpayer adding to his burden in order to prevent, if possible, the ruin of the German taxpayer. We undoubtedly need to-day a realization of the dependence of all men on each other, and a willingness to learn how to live in peace and harmony, sharing each other's burdens.

This hope can never be fulfilled until we drop our old idea that competition is the highest incentive in business and politics, and until we substitute for it the practice of co-operation in carrying out some well-conceived plan, which though it involve the sacrifice of certain individual rights and profits, will establish greater happiness and security for the larger group. Nearly all the big companies in the more important industries have formed commissions for the formulating and administering of such co-operative plans. The classic example is of course the Five Year Plan in Russia. Stalin has pointed out that Russia has nothing to fear from the United States, for, without conscious co-operation, the great competitive American capitalistic organizations will destroy each other, while the new Russian Primer makes clear, in arguments that a school child can understand, the obvious advantages of co-operative economic planning. An undeniable need of our civilization is the ability to co-operate instead of to compete, and to co-operate intelligently along well devised lines.

We are facing another problem, also brought about directly by the progress of machinery—the problem of leisure time. Because machines now make it possible to do in an hour what was formerly accomplished with difficulty in several days, we find an increasing amount of leisure



time on our hands, either in the form of a shorter working day or of actual unemployment. Many thinkers have said that the future of the race depends upon the solution of the problem of how to use this leisure. If we can learn the difference between recreation—or re-creation—and diversion and learn to put each in its proper place, the race will improve rather than deteriorate.

Leisure should give opportunity for continuous individual growth and change, after the completion of the formal schooling which most modern countries now provide. Adult education becomes a necessity in an ever-changing environment. Whenever intellectual growth ceases and the individual becomes static he is in a situation dangerous both to himself and to his fellows. Can we cater satisfactorily for the proper employment of leisure in time to save ourselves from degeneration? It will be a prodigious task.

In face of these great and immediate demands upon society, the student of the new education cannot fail to be struck by one outstanding fact. The very needs we have mentioned have been the objectives of new education from the start. The progressive teacher has long insisted upon the importance of right attitudes rather than of merely correct information, and has built a curriculum and environment in his classroom and school where these attitudes can best be formed. Although there has been great difference of opinion among progressive schools regarding almost every phase of school procedure there has always been unanimity of opinion regarding the importance of developing habits of critical constructive thinking, and of enabling the child to solve new and real problems as they arise out of life situations in his own experience. The new school endeavours to give ample opportunity to practise co-operation among its members and to eliminate all artificial and unnatural competition; to give

constant practice in forming and organizing social machinery to meet any given social need or complication. It has encouraged the particular cultivation of the arts, so that every avenue to one's soul may remain open and in use throughout life. It has realized the importance of proper adjustment to members of the opposite sex, through natural association with them at the time when that particular adjustment normally takes place. And finally, it has striven to achieve complete and intelligent co-operation between the school and the parents of the children in it.

New education has found an ally in the modern leader of 'Big Business', who realizes the immediate need for individuals trained to work together unselfishly, each striving for the best good of all. The young men and young women who have had experience in organizing a social order free from artificial competition and selfish ambition are better equipped for the difficulties of modern life. They have been accustomed to face problems squarely by analysing and solving each as it arises, without any blind dependence upon some external authority. They have learnt that the power of critical scientific thinking is far more dependable than vast funds of facts, most of which are obsolete to-day even before they are learned. They have learnt to develop within themselves the power to re-create their spiritual potentialities whenever they have leisure and even when they have not. They do not expect to stop growing after reaching adulthood, but have learnt to grow as long as they may live.

These needs of our present changing civilization are not only a vindication of the theory of the new education. They are a challenge to it; for surely if any schools are to meet these needs it should be the new schools whose objectives have long been exactly those qualities which the world sorely needs to-day.



# 'Not Wanted'

ANGELO PATRI

HERE'S a letter from a worried mother. 'My greatest trouble has been my youngest son. John is now seventeen years old. He weighs one hundred and eighty pounds, and he thinks he is a man. All his life he has made a fuss about work. He always objected because he thought he did more than the others. And so it is to this day. It is now 10 a.m., and he is still in bed. I call him, but he won't get up. He says he isn't awake yet. He quit school and all he wants is money for cigarettes and the movies. He hasn't any idea as to what kind of work he should do. He can't hold any job he gets. I've had men say to me: "Let him shift for himself. Throw him out." But where to? Where, I ask?'

Here's a similar letter about Sam. Sam was a troublesome boy, and he refused to stay in school. 'I'm not going to stay in that dead place. What do I learn? Nothing. All I ever get is "Sit there. Don't bother me." I tell you I'm not going any more. I'm gonna get me a job.' And Sam went to work, helping on a milk wagon. At the end of the first week he collected his wages: 'Now I'll spend my own money. I'm going to the show and have a good time.'

'How do you get that way?' said his father. 'You spend a week earning \$3.50, and then you want to throw it away in one evening. Not a bit of it. Give me that money.'

'I won't', said Sam, 'and you can't make me.'

'I can't eh? You do as I say or you get out.'

And Sam got out. But where—where?

I want to speak a word for all the children between sixteen and twenty-one who have no place to go but out. There is nothing in school for them, and they want no part of it. They have outlived it, and yet they are not fitted for life.

What are we to do? Throw them out? No, that wouldn't be right. If we are wise, we will care for these boys and direct them into ways of usefulness. All children are born with a desire to amount to something. If, after many years, we find them lazy and unwilling, we should know that we have done that which we should not have done and left undone those

things we should have done. The natural instincts and desires of these children should have been trained. The native energy should have been directed more wisely.

Everybody wants to be a person—everybody. Everybody wants the respect of his own community. It is plain that these boys know that they are misplaced, and they feel at a disadvantage. Are they to blame if they don't know how to work; if they can't take a school education; if they drift to the street? No—we are not dealing fairly with these boys when we say to them: 'There is no place for you—get out'.

The business men say plainly enough: 'Industry cannot use and does not want these boys. They never stay in a job long enough to find out what it's about. What we want is bright, intelligent, willing boys, who can and will concentrate on a job and carry it through. But the boys you speak of are not that kind. It would take a staff of good men to make one such boy deliver the goods. No, we do not want them.'

What shall be done with them? They cannot be turned adrift! We must take them up and train them. They are entitled to their places in industry and in society. When we ignore them, we leave them helpless and hardened. They should be reconditioned and trained so that whatever power they possess may be directed towards useful service.

If I had my way, I'd pick out the best teachers I could find in the Army and Navy; in the laboratories; in the shops; in factories; in business; in schools and colleges. Then, in every State in the Union I would establish a chain of schools. In these schools all boys would be welcome, that is, all to whom school and industry had said: 'You're not wanted—get out'. I'd put these boys into gay proud uniforms whose very buttons proclaimed to the world: 'If nobody else wants you, your country wants you'. I'd teach these boys to build roads; plant forests, and care for them. I'd teach them to collect and direct the waters so that deserts might bloom and thirsty cities drink their fill. I'd teach them to make parks and gardens. They could do all these things and lots more.



They could work under competent directions, and, by and by, re-enter their communities as useful people with a place of dignity in their world.

You may not like the scheme; many people call it names, all kinds of names, and none of them complimentary. Tell me, what can be worse for a nation than to turn loose a big group of its youth to waste in the streets? Surely nothing can justify that. And I cannot understand the attitude of a society that permits it.

Yes, if I had my way, I'd take a census of the youth of the land. I'd account for every boy and girl, i.e. all those who did not attend school, all those who had no occupation. I would list every one of them and enter them in these State schools for civic service.

Not long ago I heard a man boast about the schools in his town. 'We have the biggest schools in the world. Our schools are palaces. We are proud of them, proud of our system of education.' And yet, just outside the school doors, the street corners were crowded with boys to whom the schools had said: 'Not wanted—get out.'

And right then and there it seemed to me that I saw the ghost of Horace Mann leave its grave and come stalking into that town wailing: 'Oh, woe is me. Was it for this I was a school master?' And in his wake were all the ghosts of the dead and gone teachers, Froebel, Pestalozzi, Arnold, John Hopkins, Socrates, all crying: 'Woe is me. Was it for this I went hungry; wore my garments threadbare; dimmed my sight? Was it to hear men shout their pride in school buildings, while those who most needed help wandered helpless outside the walls?'

A child is entitled to his growth. He comes into the world, his eye set towards success and fulfilment. No one has the right to take from him the sureness of the victory. Unless we teach each one, save each one, our education has failed, our country has failed.

I am thinking of the time when it will be our proud boast that none has failed. Then we shall

have a right to boast because we have schools where each child will find the thing he can do and a position in life where he can do it. There will be as many kinds of schools as are necessary to give every child the educational opportunities he needs. Anyone needing information, instruction, help, will find it any time, day or night, summer or winter. There will be no set times for promotion, no set classes, no set hours, no left-backs, no misfits. Each child will get what he needs, when he needs it.

I saw a boy go into a school playground, one day. He picked up a bat and proceeded to order the children about. The teacher interfered and that boy broke the teacher's jaw. This lad was seventeen and as strong as an ox. He was arrested. But we couldn't see any good in sending him to prison. The judge said he would allow us time to place him in a job. But nobody wanted him, so we hired him to come to school.

Each week's wages went to pay the doctor's bill, as the judge had wisely ordered. By the time he had finished paying up, that boy had awakened to a new sense of duty and a new sense of opportunity.

And another boy who could not get past long division left school to go to work. He lost his job in a week and was loose on the streets. The garden teacher took him in and by coaxing, cajoling and persistent pulling, trained him to work. By and by that boy discovered that he could do magic with a bit of dirt and a few seeds. He is not idle now.

Schools all over the world can tell you just such stories. But I am praying for schools that will do this for all the struggling ones, so that none, none may be lost.

I believe that the best national defence lies in a trained, disciplined productive youth. Our great danger is in the weakness of ignorance. For one reason or another, children drift away from us before they have acquired the power of self control. It is this group I am thinking of, and it is this group we must save.



# Education and Unemployment

B. GRAHAME BURKITT

THE past few years of severe industrial depression have brought with them a new challenge to education. They have thrown out of employment many boys and girls of under eighteen, and the Government has realized that its responsibility to these unfortunates does not begin and end with the payment of unemployment benefit. They must be given full opportunities for exercise, both mental and physical, training in co-operation with their peers, cultural stimulus and also a certain amount of vocational training that will serve them in good stead when 'better times' arrive. To meet this need, Juvenile Instruction Centres have been opened in various parts of the British Isles. These centres aim at increasing the sense of individual responsibility and of individual competence, so becoming schools of good citizenship—a quality that tends to become irretrievably lost in the frustrating years of juvenile unemployment.

The pupils who gravitate to these centres are not generally speaking the best of the wage-earning population; some find themselves unemployed purely on account of economic depression, but it is obvious that, when an employer has to discharge his workpeople, he will first dispense with those who are least efficient, mentally or physically. Thus, the question of employability has seriously to be considered. How are the chances of securing employment to be strengthened in the face of many difficulties? Children are periodically leaving school to swell the ranks of those seeking work; there are the requirements of new processes in industry and fresh methods in commerce to contend with, as well as the problems of seasonal unemployment.

Governmental administration has encouraged the collaboration of the branches for Education and Labour, and a wise policy has been evolved, supported by the Juvenile Advisory Committees. Such a benign combination of forces is an educational evolution in itself.

The majority of those in attendance at these centres present an educational problem for careful deliberation. At sixteen years of age, a

young person realizes his shortcomings in a strenuous and exacting community; he has faced the call to action in the affairs of life at an immature age; he is not easily beguiled by didactic instruction, but is ready to absorb teaching that will further his well-being. He is more critical both of the matter and methods of instruction, and of his teachers themselves, than he was during his ordinary schooling, a few years previously. The method of approach must therefore meet the needs of these young people, made conscious now by their experience. There is here much scope for psychological investigation, but the boy or girl must not be made the subject of casual experimentation; each is calling for bread and wine.

It would be a great mistake to assume that this branch of education can be undertaken satisfactorily by teachers of casual choice, or by men and women without a broad outlook. The teacher must be confident of success and eager to direct, with patience and wisdom, those potent forces which are urging the young to vigorous life. Confidence is needed in the good impulses of teacher, and taught if fellowship is to be realized and any good thing achieved.

Classes for juvenile unemployed are organized throughout Northern Ireland. It may be of interest to give a brief account of the work done at the Belfast Centre, which is the largest in the British Isles. Here nearly 6,000 pupils have attended since March, 1930, and its influence for social adjustment in the City has been far-reaching. It has been found that many past-pupils take up courses of instruction in the excellent technical schools in the Province; no doubt this is because they have received an educational incentive at an age when their minds can value education for its own sake.

Real leadership eschews discipline as a mere means of compelling attention, indeed, in Belfast no coercion has been found necessary either in getting the pupils to school or in inducing them to work well and steadily once they are there. Their attention is caught and



held because they are shown that every subject in the curriculum has a direct and vital bearing on their own lives and work. The boys apply themselves to woodwork, engineering, civics, technical drawing, arithmetic, English and gymnastics; the girls to cookery, needlework, nursing, housecraft, art-work, English, some domestic calculations and gymnastics. Educational films are exhibited; there is a circulating library, use is made of suitable broadcast talks, and an occasional display of work encourages expression in practical execution for others to enjoy. Organized team games help in forming a corporate spirit.

All this, as has been said, has a direct bearing upon everyday life. The girls take their own materials to the dress-making classes, where they make their own clothes. The boys' civics lessons are open debates, where they discuss such subjects as the rights and duties of the voter, and the machinery of municipal administration. All this has already been found to bear practical fruit in a growing sense of tolerance and *laissez-vivre*.

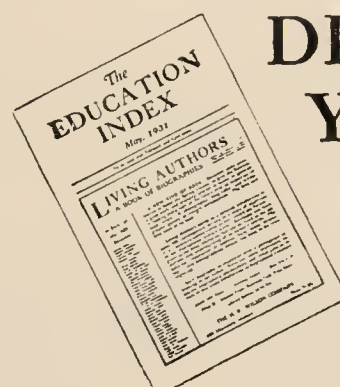
The ebb and flow of young lives through this Centre leaves marks from which one can make observations, tentative though they be. The best education does not consist in enforcing a particular type of subject in a particular way, and expecting general success with various minds. A thousand forces are at work in the building of mature thought, and it is only by adjustment and research, by distrust of old shibboleths and faith in one's ideals that modern man-making can succeed.

William James said 'offer a multiplicity of useful activities', and, when speaking of the nature and scope of a University education, Cardinal Newman inveighed against anything but the broadest choice of subjects, in making his case for the inclusion of theology. That is it, you see; scope, guidance, encouragement; never narrowness, didacticism, or unnecessary reproof. Imperfect performance should be looked for; it is illogical to expect otherwise. Remember too, that the child will ultimately select for himself—there is no stopping him.

If you should journey one day to Vigo, you will find near that Spanish port a school at

Ramalloso, where all kinds of handicraft, all manner of interests and thorough groundings, are given. It is remarkable and strikes the imagination. The children's faces radiate joy in their work, and those who leave this school are sought after as friends and craftsmen; they are scholars too. Progress in education is going on apace where we might least expect it.

The modern specialization of our social organization tends more and more to make us think that our particular part is of so much importance; it is really of value only so long as it fits in with the labours of the community as a whole. It seems that the broader outlook might well begin with the child; and if those who teach have not had occasion to travel far afield, they should seek a wider horizon for inspiration. To-morrow to fresh woods and pastures new, with new thoughts and inspirations to sustain ideals and we shall come to happy lands among glad faces that can smile so sweetly in enjoyment of our labours for them.



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# Touching the Intangible

## Modern Education among Crippled Children

JEAN R. G. STEELE

THIS is an attempt to gather up in perspective the educational work of the past year in the Children's Orthopædic Ward of the University Hospital, Edmonton.

There is a general misconception and an often over-sentimentalized idea as to the exact nature of a ward like this, and it may be well to point out that it is simply a group of normal children, alike in every way to any other group of children. They are not ill nor, generally speaking, in constant pain, but they are crippled physically for a certain period of time—months or perhaps years. The sunny wards, the regular hours, the intelligently planned diet, the sympathetic understanding of each child as an individual, and the constant expert medical care quickly result in a marked physical improvement and added mental activity.

Normally, children have three broad influences in their life—the school, the home, and the vast and ever-increasing number of outside interests. These children, however, have a very circumscribed physical environment, namely a ward in a hospital, with often the added limitation of a spica cast and Bal-ken frame; consequently everything that is to contribute to the child's mental growth and unfold his hidden potentialities must be brought to him. It has been an

accepted idea among the general public that books form the best instruments of learning but a mass of information acquired from reading has a very limited value, often on the contrary, contributing the insidious but very definite evil of clogging the child's mind until he becomes inert and aimless. A child's inner vitality and vivid sense of awareness to the outside world; his independence and initiative; his ability to face and handle the various situations of life as they appear; these are the testing points of a child's education, and it was to encourage these that every branch of our school work was planned and developed.

They were a cosmopolitan group of all ages and nationalities, and the work ranged from kindergarten to Grade IX (first year High School).

Our scheduled teaching hours were nine to twelve, and, obviously, these are also the hours of ceaseless activity on the part of every one connected in any way with the hospital. We had,

fortunately, in connection with each main ward, a large and attractive sun-parlour always in use by some of the children. Maids, orderlies, nurses, doctors were all equally busy. Floors were being swept, washed and polished; children were being prepared for, and received from, the operating room



*Babies' School, Kurandai  
Heart Home, Hartfield.*

*[Reproduced by kind permission of the  
Invalid Children's Aid Association  
and Messrs. Camburn, Tunbridge Wells]*



special cases of massage, quartz-light and physical exercises were being given; there were the doctor's daily visits and the occasional clinic—all this constituted the environment in which the children worked. It may seem impossible that work of any value could be accomplished under such conditions. Nevertheless, it was done, for children have a remarkable faculty for seeing only fundamentals; they are the true realists, and, when interested, can develop a power of concentration, Olympic in its remoteness from the world around them.

We were faced with the problem that meets hundreds of teachers in rural schools in Canada, namely how to provide intelligent occupation for the children who are not being given instruction by the teacher. We have always tried to keep in touch as closely as possible with the work as planned by the Department of Education, planning our own methods to accomplish the greatest amount of work in the shortest time. One had to keep in mind the fact that these children were only there temporarily, and should be fitted to enter a grade in their own school, suitable to their age. A child of twelve who has never learned to read suffers intense humiliation at being obliged to enter a class of beginners; therefore, if we received children like that, which we often did, our first and most urgent work was to teach them to read, placing in their own hands the key to greater knowledge.

Young children are incapable of listening for a long period—the law of their nature is to do and learn chiefly through the medium of the sense of touch, therefore all our reading, writing and number work was taught in this way. There are many excellent methods of teaching reading, but they usually involve the continual presence of a teacher working with the children. This was impossible, so we built a method to suit our own conditions on the basic principles of Miss MacKinder, Dr. Decroly, and Dr. Washburne. Paper or cardboard are not suitable for children in bed; we used instead three-ply wood which, light but durable, could be washed or repainted and disinfected if necessary.

For reading we had several boards 9ins. by 12ins. painted in different colours, and on each board a simple story was printed, a sentence on each line. On smaller pieces of wood, in the

same colours, duplicates were printed, and the children placed these on the larger board, learning the words by sight only. The teaching of sounds was carried out in the same way, after the children could read several stories. Other boards can be made by which are learned the different colours, the days of the week, the months of the year, the names of the children, the furniture of the ward, the cereals, fruits, and vegetables used in their food, and so on. In this way, a vocabulary of two or three hundred words in actual daily use by the children is quickly acquired, without the presence of a teacher, who can be busy elsewhere. Also, I found that instead of preparing these story boards at home as I had done, the work provided hours of interesting activity for the senior children—the boys particularly. It evolved into a project. It began as a composition lesson, and I quickly became superfluous. The only part I had to play was simply to say: 'I should like a new story with these words for Margaret and Helen. There is a list of the words they know; could you think out something interesting for them?' They were in daily contact with the children; knew their interests and peculiarities, and unfailingly their stories were psychologically suitable, and delightfully fresh and true. While the composition was being made, perhaps others had been painting the board in readiness for the printing. The board had to be measured carefully and the printing spaced correctly; then it was all varnished for sanitary reasons, and finally handed over to the younger children who had been eagerly watching the different proceedings.

Number work and writing were taught on similar lines. In teaching writing, we made a series of boards 6ins. by 24ins. painted in different colours, on each of which five 5-in. letters in script or print were written and painted in black-board paint. This was in order that chalk might be used and the letters traced any number of times. This again could be done with only a few minutes' instruction.

In the Intermediate Grades, geography, history and nature study were the subjects to which we devoted as much time as possible. We replaced almost entirely the formal memorization of geographical and historical facts from books, and substituted instead modelling work



in plasticine, and a composition of salt and flour which could be coloured very successfully in water colour—the making of many maps in cardboard and wood on as large a scale as could be handled conveniently—in fact, the representing, pictorially or by hand work models, every phase of geography and history that could be so represented.

With regard to the High School work, a new element entered. In the first place, it was the urgent wish of the children themselves to do the work, and with that fortunate beginning major difficulties vanished.

We began by discussing the full year's work; analysing each subject and making general schedules for the term; jotting down books of reference and talking over various methods—our object being to have a broad, general idea of the work and to have a definite method of approach. Our programme was of course very flexible—it was never intended to be rigid, and was subject to constant revision.

There were six subjects and with the very limited time at our disposal—they never at any

time had more than four hours per week of actual tuition—it did not seem possible to attempt the full course. We decided to study all the subjects for two months to help us decide which to eliminate. We did this, and one Friday in November, I suggested that they talk over the question at the week-end and come to a definite decision. Monday arrived, and when I asked if they had chosen their subjects, they replied:—

'Yes, we have, and we hope you'll agree.'

'What is it?'

'We want them all. We went over them most carefully and—you see—Composition is chiefly one essay—one letter, and the rest is punctuation, abbreviations, plurals, things anybody can memorize—not real thinking—so we should be able to do that; Geometry and Algebra are easy because you just have to do what you are told, and one thing leads to another; Latin we want to do—it is so sensible, and, of course, History and Literature are simply fascinating, we can't let them go, and that's all.'

They tried the experiment, and the subsequent successful examination results proved their judgment to have been right.



*Children's Heart Home and Hospital,  
West Wickham*

*[Reproduced by kind permission of the Invalid  
Children's Aid Association and Photopress Ltd.]*



Algebra and geometry, as they said, offered no difficulties, so occasionally I brought scientific works by Eddington or Milliken, and they browsed around until they found a very complex formula which we all—shall I say—worshipped from afar. Algebra was then seen to be a foreign language, translatable if you had the key—an intensely microscopic shorthand to express the great and illimitable forces of the universe.

Geometry can much more easily be brought into touch with our daily life and work, but one book which we had on loan for a few days left a very vivid impression. It was *Dynamic Symmetry* by Jay Hambidge, in which he shows by countless exquisite drawings and illustrations that the most delicate of Greek vases is built on as sound and solid a geometrical principle as the Parthenon itself. They could not, of course, understand the complexity of his geometrical reasoning, it was not intended that they should; what they did receive was of much greater importance, namely a new idea; a realization of the definite relationship between geometry and art, and further that the mathematicians of Egypt and the craftsmen of Greece were each expressing through a vastly different medium, the same fundamental idea. It ceased to be a lesson in history or geometry and became one in ethnology.

In History they used for reference at least ten other books to supplement their own reader; to show the varied opinions of acknowledged historians and how the same historical data can have many different interpretations. They made numerous charts and maps which proved an excellent means of review at the end of the year. They also compiled a scrap book in which were pasted any articles from current papers and magazines that had any reference to their work. The choice was left entirely to themselves and was unerringly true. This also had the effect of keeping continually fresh in their minds and conversation work that would otherwise have lain fallow for several weeks. That History was not merely a school subject, but a very living reality may be shown by the following incident. One morning, when I went in after working with the younger children, I was greeted with:

'We had such fun last night. Do you know what we did—we each adopted ancestors!'

'Oh', I said—'a reversal of the usual process. Whom did you adopt?'

'I adopted Alexander the Great. It was he who gave us the idea. You remember his mother used to tell him when he was a child that he was descended from Achilles and that idea stayed with him when he grew up and made him do things and go to places he would never have thought of going to, so I adopted Alexander because, although he did things that had better be forgotten—still—he had a conquering spirit!'

The next child said:

'I adopted Hannibal because I have always liked him; nobody understood how great he was until he was dead, and he certainly got a raw deal from those Carthaginians.'

Another said:

'I adopted Julius Cæsar, because I wanted to make up to him for the awful thoughts I've had about him all these years. I always hated him for conquering England and got such a surprise when I found out what he was really like.'

The last child said, rather apologetically:

'I adopted Socrates: I really felt too dumb to have him for an ancestor, but I like those old Greeks because they did their own work and left other people alone.'

They had carried this whimsical idea to a considerable length, comparing and discussing the respective lives and achievements of their temporary relatives, with an intensity of interest usually expended in these days on Ramon Novarro or Douglas Fairbanks, and unconsciously giving each other the finest history lesson possible.

The Literature was carried out in a similar manner; continual discussions and comparisons leading us along many queer paths. Whenever possible, we drafted the Literature selections as plays or moving picture scenarios. We only planned the scenes, characters and general stage appointments. We did not attempt dialogue, but were content with atmosphere and local colour.

No question that any child asked was ever put aside: always we attempted a reply, although the older boys spoke continually, in the, to me, unfamiliar language of volts and amperes. I often felt oppressed, even at times depressed, by my ignorance, until one day I found comfort in *Punch*, who remarked:—

'Our boys but lately in their cots  
Apply their hearts and souls,  
To intercourse with kilowatts,  
With magnets, plugs and poles.'

The following are a few random remarks and



questions that have appeared throughout the year. First, an original valentine sent me by a child of twelve:—

'There is one Great Heart that joins us all,  
Winter, Summer, Spring and Fall:  
Like the branches on a tree,  
All joined to one another are we—  
The People of the Earth,  
Either Sister or Brother.'

*George*, 3½ years, learning to write:

'I've made a 2 and I feel a lot better.'

*Freddy*, 6 years:

'Would you wait until I've had my bath before you start telling the older boys about the Universe?'

*Jennie*, 15 years:

'Most poets don't care whether they tell the truth or not, but Shelley is different. His words are like music and his thoughts are scientifically true.'

#### Questions.

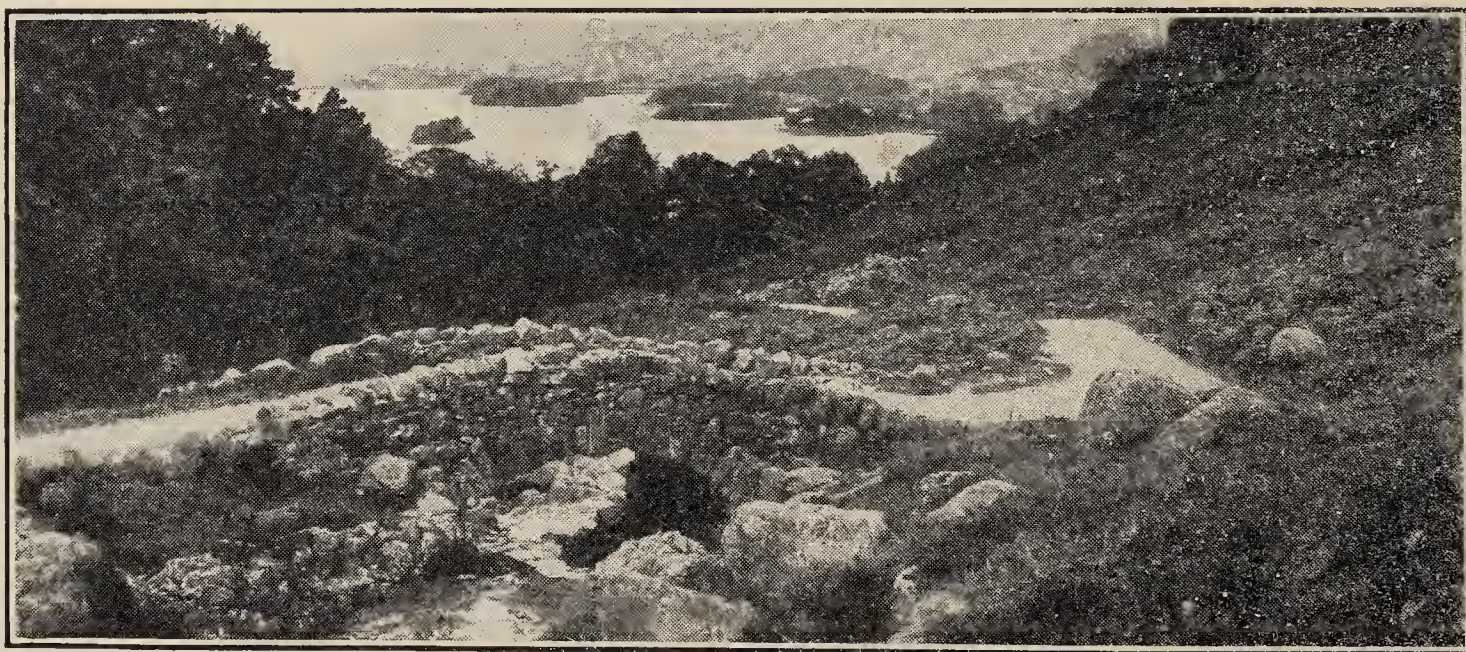
1. How did people come to talk so many different languages?
2. Do the cells of your brain grow when you think or do they just change partners?
3. Do flowers get electric shocks?

4. How does Sir James Jeans measure the distance of the stars?
5. Do mice have memory and imagination?
6. Why have young Chinamen such an old look?
7. Why is monogamy more cultured than polygamy?

(This statement was made in their History Text Book, and nothing passed unchallenged.)

At the end of the year, the children were as fit physically and as eager mentally as when they began. There was no feeling of fatigue or nervous exhaustion. They had worked with utter freedom individually or in groups, as they preferred forming naturally co-operative and never competitive groups. There were days of intense quiet, and others of equally wild hilarity; which atmosphere was the more productive I have no means of knowing. Nothing is finished; the process of being, doing, creating, continues; only this I do know, that each day an intangible something was brought to life, intangible, elusive, yet a potent pulsating reality. And so, for the present we leave them, with a mark of interrogation, facing the tomorrow.

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# The Growth of Personality

ELIZABETH LEE VINCENT, Ph.D.

THE other day I arrived in the playroom of the nursery school just in time to see a newly enrolled, and hence not well-adapted, child named Jim kick over a tower of blocks which another child, Gordon, had built. It may interest the reader to know that no fight ensued. Instead, Gordon quietly walked across the room to a spot where Jim had arranged a group of toy animals as a circus. Without a word he swept his foot across the scene, leaving disorder in his path, gave the spot a satisfied look, and returned to rebuild his tower. Jim, seeming to realize the justice of the situation, returned to his circus and set it in order. A few moments later Gordon had occasion to pass Jim's circus. He stopped, raised his foot to destroy the scene again, hesitated, checked his action, turned, and went about his business. Apparently when reason reminded him that his debt was squared and that further destruction was somehow unwarranted he had sufficient emotional control to inhibit his impulse.

Gordon had had the advantage of nursery school training for two years. Now, at four years of age, he had enough control to inhibit a movement he had started, and had also a real consideration for the rights of others.

The visitor with me asked: 'Isn't that rather unusual behaviour for so young a child?'

I answered: 'No, I don't think so. The thing that is unusual in this group of children is Jim's behaviour in kicking down the tower. Gordon, by the way, is not a meek child. He does not hesitate to fight when he considers that someone has been unfair to him, or when he sees

injustice dealt out to another child. Gordon's control is due to the fact that he is growing up emotionally.'

'Growing up emotionally?' said the visitor. 'What do you mean?'

I went on to explain. People grow emotionally just as they do physically and mentally—or, at least, they should. Failure to grow emotionally is quite as unfortunate as failure to grow physically or mentally. The emotional dwarf is as handicapped in the race of life, as much to be pitied, as the physical dwarf or the imbecile. We perhaps do not recognize emotional dwarfishness so readily, but it exists nevertheless, and is responsible for much of the mental illness and unhappiness of the world.

Psychiatry and psychology have done a good deal to relieve mental illness and correct unhappiness by 'growing people up emotionally'. Here, however, as in any other field, an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure. Desirable growth from the beginning of life is infinitely preferable to the forced development necessi-

tated when normal growth has been delayed. It is recognition of this fact that has turned the attention of experts in child guidance to an emphasis on emotional growth that has momentarily become almost a cult. Like any school of thought springing into prominence in the short span of a few years, this one has its extremists who command attention by the very exaggeration of their claims. But also, like any school that has grown up in response to a real need, it has cultivated much that is useful. The extremists claim that by 'analysis' and



*Playing together*



the development of the individual through certain experiences, they can produce 'mature' (by which is meant strong, forceful, effective) personalities.

Less extreme workers realize that such a forced maturing technique may have its value in treating certain types of psychopathological cases; but they believe also that it is not a panacea for emotional ills and cannot be considered a substitute for sound physical and mental development from infancy.

The idea of emotional growth is an excellent one when it is given its proportionate place in the picture of total growth. Previous articles in *The New Era* have discussed aspects of physical and mental growth. Let us recall these as a background for the present discussion. Assume a recognition of the importance to personality of sound physical health and healthy mental growth—an adequate development of Motor skills, sense perceptions, language, reasoning capacity, and so on—and then consider personality growth.

The realization that personality does grow has come rather recently to most people. We have taken it for granted that personality traits were inherited or just happened. In either case there wasn't much to be done about it. People had good dispositions or bad ones, quick tempers or controlled ones, were ambitious or lazy, successful or failures. That they were what education and opportunity had made them never occurred to anyone. Least of all did anyone suppose that what happened to young children had any bearing on the kind of persons they turned out to be.

Then we learned from several different sources (psychiatry, behaviourism, psychoanalysis, education, and psychology among them) that what happens to children determines in a real sense whether they will be aggressive or shy in adulthood, poised or flighty, truthful or deceitful, happy or unhappy. We learned, in fact, that what happens even in the first few years of life is of importance. It was only a brief step from this finding to the extreme preaching that personality was made or broken before age seven, or age five, or age two, depending upon the extremist who did the preaching. Mothers in study clubs, using certain widely circulated books for texts, began

to be panic-stricken, because they were taught that when their children were aged six they had only one year in which to teach obedience, or when their children were eighteen months old they had only six months more in which to mould their 'love life'.

Such doctrines are of course ridiculous. Anyone who has had fairly wide experience with elementary school children knows that, though there are occasional children who are difficult or almost impossible to re-cast, most of them yield to the influence of a well-conducted school or home, and, if kept in a situation which calls forth desirable responses for a certain length of time, never relapse into undesirable behaviour traits which may have been formed earlier. Few writers on adolescence fail to call attention to the rapid changes of personality characteristic of that period. It is therefore a needlessly discouraging doctrine which sets a personality beyond change within the first few years of life.

We must grant that the earlier an influence is brought to bear, the more quickly will it effect a change, and that, ordinarily, earlier influences write, into the personality, traits more indelible than later ones do. But that a child will always be rebellious because he disobeys at three, or that he will be permanently deceitful because he compromises with truth at seven, leaves little hope for the parents of average children. People are seldom too old to change a personality trait if they have sufficient desire to do so. Many have overcome undesirable traits acquired in childhood simply by determining to achieve better ones. Such changes are not easy, and become more difficult with increasing age. They require a tremendous strength of purpose, but they are not impossible.

Some people who understand the possibility of change fail to improve because they do not know what traits they want to cultivate. Similarly, parents and teachers sometimes fail in guiding children because they cannot decide what traits to foster. There is much confusion, for example, about the extent to which one should encourage freedom of expression. One current conception is that repression of primitive impulses and interests leads to neuroticism and insanity. To be sure, many cases of mental illness have been traced to inadequate expression or unreasonable inhibitions of natural



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impulses, and have been cured when adequate outlets were provided. In our anxiety over these cases we seem to have forgotten the numerous cases of neuroticism and insanity which are due to inadequate self-discipline and self-control. We have become intoxicated with the doctrine of self-expression and have forgotten the need for self-control, with the result that we have in many cases thrown off the brakes and are coasting crazily about on the highway of life.

There is little doubt that the Puritans and mid-Victorians advocated a brand of control that amounted to complete inhibition of certain native impulses. Complete negativism to authority has resulted, and still results, from over-repressive, arbitrary programmes of parental discipline in childhood. Sexual perversions and neuroticism have developed in the past and still do develop from bad sex education and over-repressive attitudes toward sex. There are still many parents and educators who need constant reminders of the dangers of uncompromising severity in handling children. Occasionally incipient genius is doubtless kept from developing when there is no outlet for creative expression. We shall have richer and happier living when the world has learned to cultivate its leisure-time activities and express itself in simple ways.

Sane progressive education is an excellent and much-needed thing. But we must emphasize the word *sane*. Self-expression and the pursuit of individual interests may go so far as to encourage children to forget the rights of others. Children who have been allowed to make all their own decisions, regardless of their inexperience and the importance of the decision, sometimes turn out to be people who, in their own opinion, know more than anyone else, and who have no respect whatever for superior wisdom. I have known many children of whom this is true—children whose parents have been so eager in their programme of uninhibited freedom and self-expression that they have lost their sense of proportion. Instead of freeing their children they have made slaves of them, for they have bound them to the tyranny of uncontrolled impulses. Strong, forceful, effective personality has been lost to these children because they cannot control themselves or others. Being ego-centric, they lack insight into the needs of

others; being the slaves of impulse, they lack capacity for concentration; being unpractised in adjustment to difficulty, they go to pieces under competition.

Self-control, good work habits, ability to get along with people, kindness, courage, honesty, sound judgment, and clear thinking are some of the traits essential to strength and health of personality. Joyousness, enthusiasm, and vision are also necessary. No child is too young to begin his lessons in these traits. The infant who is fed whenever he likes, or who is allowed to rule a family by crying, is learning neither adjustment to routine nor consideration for other people. The two-year-old child can learn to feed himself and play constructively without demanding constant attention. He can begin to appreciate the meaning of mine and thine, and should already be well on the way to sharing attention with other people. Even at a year children should not be permitted to absorb the entire attention of those around them. At two the happy sharing of the mother with the father and other children should be accomplished.

The three-year-old can learn to keep his toys in order and to pick up the newspapers, or dust the lower rungs of the furniture, as his contribution to family living. He should be playing happily with other children, should work with concentration and satisfaction at simple occupations, and should have made real progress in controlling the tendency to cry when unhappy, or to give vent to temper when displeased.

At four years of age much should have been achieved in self-care—dressing, washing, the toilet, and so on—and the ability to adjust to trying situations should be fairly well developed. Compliance with a healthful routine, co-operation with reasonable authority, a fairly clear understanding of property rights, the ability to play happily with other children, a joy in work well done, and the ability to make simple decisions—all these and many other valuable traits should be learned during the pre-school period. These lessons will not be too difficult if they are graded to fit the mental and physical capacity of the child and are taught under happy circumstances.

Complete finish in social manners, absolutely accurate differentiation between truth and falsehood, perfect self-control, and real self-



forgetfulness cannot be expected of young children. These are lessons which challenge the best ability of adolescents—may, indeed, prove worth the attention of many adults.

Growth of personality, like any growth, is a gradual process. Maturity cannot be achieved in the earliest years of life and should not be expected. But progress should be steady and

should be evident from the beginning of a child's life experience. Parents and teachers owe their charges an understanding of this fact and an opportunity to grow in personality at the optimum rate. Perhaps no measure in education would yield as rich returns as a programme for greater insight into, and provision for, such growth.

## Important Facts a Parent Should Remember

M. A. PAYNE

1. Nothing but the right upbringing of the children of this generation can remedy the disastrous state of affairs from which the world is now suffering. Ignorance of children's needs and of the way to meet them is largely responsible for the present conditions.

2. There are three million people in the British Isles suffering from 'nervous' disorders which are largely the direct result of ignorance and wrong treatment during the early years of their lives.

3. Good parenthood means giving children an environment in which the individuality of the child shall grow and not be stifled and lost.

4. A child is a person. He is not a pet or plaything for his parents' enjoyment and possession. He should be treated with the same respect and understanding as an adult.

5. A child needs to feel secure in the love of its parents, but constant caressing may indicate self-centred, rather than child-centred, love.

6. Children know whether they are wanted or not wanted, loved or not loved. They notice and understand at a very early age much of what is said and done in front of them. Good parents do not discuss their children in their presence.

7. Pampered, spoilt children grow up into self-centred, unhappy men and women. The art of being a good parent lies in knowing how to express love wisely.

8. Children should be encouraged to do things for themselves from the first possible moment.

9. Comradeship with a child is always better than authority over it. This is possible at all ages. If lost, it can be won back, but only slowly.

10. It is what a child *feels* inside about things that matters, for good or ill. What he says may be merely thoughts and words taken over ready-made from parents or other people, leaving his feeling as it was before.

11. Feeling is the driving force behind all the child's *actions*. With knowledge, a parent can tell from the child's actions what he is feeling.

12. The way parents speak to children is often more important than what they say. Expression of voice may increase fear or uncertainty in the child, even where the parent does not desire to do that kind of harm.

13. Parents should not show off their children nor should they belittle them in public or at any time.

14. Harsh or humiliating punishment is very harmful to children. Nagging is injurious. Understanding and gentleness and example will win in the end. If immediate action must be taken, it should not be such as to lead a child to feel that a barrier has been raised between him and his parents. Instead, it should lead him to feel that the air has been cleared.

15. Character is developed through experiment and experience. Children should be encouraged to explore and should not be punished for mistakes or curiosity, for by these we all learn.

16. True freedom does *not* mean 'Do as you like', but is discipline self-imposed. This right attitude cannot be attained if authority is imposed in such a way that the child never learns to think.

17. It is just as important to know why a child is obedient as to know why he is disobedient. It may be that he has grown to see the wisdom of his parents' advice, but often



obedience is due to fear, or to a desire to gain praise or love from adults.

18. Obedience should not be imposed by threat. Telling a child to do something is probably less harmful than telling him *not* to do something. But everything really depends on the spirit in which the instruction is given, which is reflected in the tone of voice.

19. Parents should laugh with the children whenever possible, but never at them.

20. Children 'sense' very quickly and accurately such things as anxiety in, or disharmony between, their parents. Fear is very contagious and it may be caught by a child, so that a whole life is rendered unhappy. Children are easily frightened by what they do not understand. Explain as far as is possible.

21. A child's fears should never be laughed at, for there is nothing cowardly in fear itself. Fear should be acknowledged, not hidden, for it can only be overcome when the true cause is discovered.

22. Encouragement is essential to the development of courage in the child.

23. Fear of parents established in early childhood is liable to make true comradeship in later life impossible.

24. Parents should not postpone or refuse to answer their children's questions. Truthful answering is vital to the child's growth. If the child is left unsatisfied, he will inevitably make inquiries outside his home with undesirable consequences.

25. Good parents recognize the importance played by the school in the child's development and make it their business to co-operate with the teachers and understand what they are trying to do.

Parents should join the Parent-Teacher Association at the school, or the local Child Study Circle. If neither body exists in their town or village, they should write for help, if in Great Britain, to the Organizing Secretary, The Home and School Council, 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

Parents living outside Great Britain should write either to The International Federation of Home and School, Shippen Building, 1919 Cherry Street, Philadelphia, Pa., U.S.A., or to their own national body.

*(Reprint from a leaflet issued by the Home and School Council.)*

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# July 29th—August 12th, 1932

*are the dates between which the*

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# First Steps to Freedom

## Dairy Project

H. R. F. GULL



*St. Francis Xavier's School, Liverpool*

*[Photograph by kind permission  
of the 'Liverpool Daily Post']*

THIS project is being carried out by a class of six year old children at St. Francis Xavier's Catholic School in Liverpool.

The bottled milk is supplied daily by the 'Co-operative Milk Distributors' who kindly lend the empty bottles and 'cages' seen in the picture.

The children have been visited by a representative of the National Milk Publicity Council, who gave them a talk on the value of milk and the illustration of the 'Vitamin Fairies.'

The children are responsible for the distribution of the milk throughout the school, and each child is in turn responsible for the collection of 'milk pennies'

and renders daily accounts to the head teacher.

A list of rules, which apply chiefly to cleanliness, washing hands, etc., has been compiled by the children, and the rules are faithfully kept.

Since the project started the attendance has been excellent, and the teachers attribute it quite as much to the children's interest in their dairy as to the nutritive value of the milk. The project has also aroused the interest of the parents, who co-operate in the work. The 'milk trolley' in the picture was made by the father of one of the children, and several other contributions have been received from parents.



# International Notes

## NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION OF GREAT BRITAIN, 32 Bloomsbury Street, W.C.2

The preparations for the Summer Conference at Reading, during the week-end 10th to 13th June, are progressing. The Vice-Chancellor of the University will welcome the Conference and every facility will be given to members to see such departments of the University as are of special interest to them. Some of the speakers who have already kindly consented to contribute to the Conference are: Mr. R. H. Tawney, Miss Margaret Drummond, and Miss Effie Tyle.

In view of the recent discussion as to the proper amount of milk that should be allowed per head per day to children in Nursery Schools, the following memorandum drawn up by Dr. Margaret Hogarth, member of the Nursery School Association Executive, will be of interest to all members of the Association:

Growth is the primary function of the young child. The principal food constituents concerned with growth and body building are Protein and Calcium. The younger the child the more rapid its relative growth, and accordingly the larger the protein and calcium requirement in relation to body weight. In very early infancy, when the sole concern of the individual is growth, food consists entirely of milk, of which protein is one of the chief constituents, and the protein requirement remains very high throughout the growing period, much higher per pound of body weight than that required by the adult. In addition to its being easily assimilable by young children, milk contains calcium and phosphorus in properly balanced proportions, and these, along with Vitamin D, which is present in varying proportions in milk, and which can be supplemented by exposure to sunlight or to other ultra-violet rays, or by the provision of cod-liver oil, are security against rickets and other developmental defects. In milk, therefore, we have the most valuable food ingredients possible for the growing child.

Corry Mann found, in a residential institution in England, that the addition of one pint of milk per day to the dietary of boys aged 11 to 12 years almost doubled the annual gain in weight, and increased the average gain in height by 43 per cent.

The Director of the Division of Child Hygiene in the Health Department of New York lays down three American pints (48 ounces) of milk as the daily quantity required by young children. Much depends upon the other constituents of the diet, but in any nursery school, especially in an industrial area where rachitic manifestations are by no means infrequent, assuming that the children have a certain variable amount of food at home, the minimum average amount supplied for each child should not be less than one pint per day for all purposes. Considerable scientific research has definitely established the value of milk not only in ensuring healthy growth of the children, but in raising their general resistance to disease.

## FELLOWSHIP NEWS

Dr. Adolphe Ferrière, a Director of the N.E.F., has been in England during April.

Frau Dr. Elisabeth Rotten, a fellow Director, hopes to be in London shortly. She will give an address at Woburn House, Upper Woburn Place, W.C.1, on 19th May, at 5 30 p.m., on *Goethe—a Leader Towards a New Europe*. The English Section and International Headquarters extend a cordial invitation to all *New Era* readers to meet and hear Dr. Rotten.

R.S.V.P. New Education Fellowship, 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

Further details and a syllabus of Mr. A. J. Lynch's course of lectures on *Trends in Modern Educational Practice* will be found on the page facing *Outlook Tower*.

## OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST

**Conferences and Summer Schools** (*additional to those announced in the April Issue*).

Berlin, *Courses in Education for Teachers from Abroad*:

Introductory course on German Education, 8th to 13th August.

Methods in Elementary Schools, 15th to 20th August.

Methods in Secondary Schools, 15th to 20th August.

Selected Problems in Educational Psychology, 15th to 27th August.

Rhythmic Gymnastics in Germany, 11th to 22nd July.

Hague, *International Conference on the Teaching of History*, 30th June to 2nd July.

London, *The Psychology of Self-Expression through the Mother-Tongue*, Miss Dorothy Matthews, 32 Primrose Hill Road, London, N.W.3.

Oxford, *The Pipers' Guild—a school of making and playing*, 8th to 22nd August.

Tokyo, *Oriental Culture Summer College of Tokyo*, 4th to 22nd July.

Vienna, *Summer Courses at the Hellerau-Laxenburg School*, will take place from June till September.

The syllabus this year will include gymnastics, rhythmic, dancing and music teaching. Full information may be obtained from the Secretary, Schule Hellerau-Laxenburg, Schloss Laxenburg, bei Wien, Austria.

Winnetka, Illinois, U.S.A. *Winnetka Summer School for Teachers*, 18th (or 25th) June to 29th July.



## Canada

Dr. W. Hamilton Fyfe, Principal of Queen's University, opened a debate at the University of Toronto recently, on the motion that 'university education in Canada is in a mess'.



Dr. Fyfe argues that the danger to university education in Canada is not from specialization but from commercialization.

'I think the machinery of university education is entirely out of date in Canada. Why do professors get up and lecture? Simply because the custom has been copied from European universities. . . . What a ridiculous system! What a terrible waste of everybody's time! It's perfectly absurd! The only equal absurdity is the system of examinations. . . . Under the examination system the student has only to take a certain amount of information into his system and be able to bring it up at the proper moment. And this leads him to believe that truth is something that somebody has said, and which he must repeat, whereas in reality he must find truth out for himself by arduous search and continuous reading.

Two prime faculties are the basic essentials of an education—curiosity and logic. The system of lecture and examinations in my opinion gets hold of neither. . . . Are you being developed into critical and sceptical individuals, or into smooth and complacent citizens? If you are going out from the university to question things for yourselves, then you will have been educated and you will have proven that university education in Canada is not a mess.' The motion was carried by 117 votes to 64.

### Great Britain

The *New Ideals in Education* held a very successful Annual Conference at Bristol, 28th March to 2nd April, the subject being 'The education of the Whole Man'.

Professor J. E. Marcault read a paper on 'Towards Integral Education'. He said that integral education to-day could not be exhaustive instruction, nor could education continue to be what it had been too much in the past, the giving of instruction, the imparting of standards of excellence established by environment, and training in techniques that would help the individual to reach those standards.

Dr. Rouse, late head master of the Perse School, Cambridge, whose subject was 'All men are unequal', said that no two men are alike. Each has individuality both of body and mind, and this is best preserved during the years of training by means of some uniform and persistent element—discipline. 'I do not believe at all in the desire to throw off constraint simply because it is constraint', said Dr. Rouse. 'I do not believe even in self-government except within narrow limits. All such things as these, to be good, imply something strong and abiding, which stands in the background; call it sound will, or sound principles, or law, or tradition, or any of these as brought into action through some person. Without this abiding element, which does use constraint, freedom cannot be.'

*Scholarships in Dalcroze Eurhythmics.* On another page will be seen an advertisement of the London School of Dalcroze Eurhythmics, drawing attention to one full Scholarship and two half Scholarships that are being offered in the Training Department. This is an opportunity to obtain free training or training at half fees for girls with musical gifts, who desire an interesting career which gives scope for creative and imaginative ability. Full particulars may be obtained from the Secretary, the Dalcroze School, 23 Store Street, W.C.1.

We regret to announce the deaths of Sir Patrick Geddes, Dr. Georg Michael Kerschensteiner and Mr. Cecil Reddie.

Sir Patrick Geddes died at the age of 77 at Montpellier, France, the scene of the last of his long series of educational experiments. He worked as a student under T. H. Huxley and collaborated with Sir J. Arthur Thomson in publishing *The Evolution of Sex*, 1889. From the first he showed that he regarded science chiefly as an instrument for social betterment and was particularly interested in housing and town planning. He went to India in 1919 as Professor of Civics and Sociology at Bombay. He made investigations and reports of about forty Indian cities. Later, in Palestine, Sir Patrick was associated with the restoration of Jaffa and Haifa, as well as Jerusalem and the building of Tel Aviv, the only purely Jewish city in the world. He took a large part in the re-establishing of an international university at Montpellier, where he founded the Scots' College. A great exponent of Regional Geography, Sir Patrick was also a pioneer in the campaign against the rigidity of the examination system, and was in this and many other ways essentially a progressive educationist throughout his long life.

Dr. Georg Michael Kerschensteiner was one of the greatest figures in German education. He had an extraordinary breadth of grasp and scarcely a phase of the educational life of his country was unaffected by his vision and energy. Born in Munich in 1854, he started his teaching career at the age of 17 in an elementary school. After twenty years of active teaching he became Councillor of the Municipal Schools at Munich and Professor of Psychology and Education at the University there. As a school reformer he worked, wrote and pleaded for a more liberal education.

Mr. Cecil Reddie founded Abbotsholme School, England, in 1889, as a definite attempt to make education a whole and natural process and, as he said, to 'aid the Ascent of Man'. His influence as a progressive educationist can hardly be exaggerated. He had followers in America, France and Germany, where his name is still held in very high repute.





**Le Calcul et la Mesure au Premier Degré de l'Ecole Decroly.** By Ovide Decroly and A. Hamaïde. (Delachaux & Niestlé, Paris, 1932.)

This is a very concise and simple exposition of the methods used at the Ecole de l'Ermitage, near Brussels, for the teaching of mathematics. Essentially these are the principles upon which Professor Decroly's whole educational system is founded.

To begin with, the school is situated in an environment, preferably in the country, where contact is available with the simpler aspects of life in variety and with social elements of community life.

Most educators with modern outlook have probably felt that the exercises in mathematics given in a school should take their departure in this way from life and utilize the actual interests of the children. Most of us have felt, however, that it was difficult to carry out these principles in practice. The present little volume is chiefly surprising as an eye-opener in the direction of what can be done. Beside various chance occasions which may be taken advantage of to provide material for calculations, the situation has been mapped out in advance with a view to deliberate exploitation.

Four general fields are laid out—those of food-getting, of the struggle against the elements, of defence against danger and sickness, and of labour. Some of the problems raised have to do with everyday life such as the feeding of animals, with its weighing out, calculation of proper amounts and their purchase—sixteen such heads are enumerated. Other interests centre about fortuitous happenings, the financial side of getting up a festival, a promenade, an excursion, or a play which the children are giving; the laying-out of a sports field with calculation of its area, of kinds and amounts of labour involved and of the cost of materials.

An interesting fact about the mode of measuring is, that the conventional standards are not at first introduced. Instead, lengths are measured by spans, paces, the length of the child's own body, etc.; volume is measured by comparison with seeds, nuts, and fruits; capacity is measured by teaspoonfuls and cupfuls; time is measured by heartbeats, breaths, lifetimes of animals having short existence like the fly or long existence like the elephant, or by the ages of the children or their relatives. Similar homely standards are found for density, colour,

hardness, elasticity, flexibility, porousness, taste, smell, and the like. The children keep a little box in which they have a collection of all sorts of objects by means of which to make these comparisons. Only gradually as they become older are these natural standards exchanged for the conventional metric system.

One of the most interesting things the children do is by way of rendering graphic the passage of time. They make a calendar by which is shown a clock in the centre, and sectors, representing months, radiating out from the twelve hours on the clock. A distinctive colour is chosen for each seasonal group of three months—green for spring, yellow for summer, brown for autumn, and grey for winter. The month is then divided into weeks and into days. The children draw pictures on the calendar of the more interesting of their experiences to mark the passage of the days—for instance, a picture of a sheep might represent a day that they went into the country to shear a sheep of some wool to be spun into cloth.

This project itself is interesting as illustrating the whole method. The height, weight, etc., of the sheep are measured in terms of hands, and other units. The amount of wool taken from him is carefully weighed before washing and after washing. The ratios of the dimensions of the sheep to the amount of wool got from him are calculated and also the amount of weight lost in the washing, representing grease and dirt as fractions of the whole weight. Each of the further processes of the grading and spinning of wool and weaving it into cloth is material for mathematical calculations, and in the end one may figure the amount of wool that needs to be clipped to make a garment for each of the children and adults of the group.

The calculation of values is arrived at first by comparison of the relative worth of familiar objects, classed in lots—for instance, among school objects a copy book is perhaps equal to two pencils, or twenty pins, or half a bottle of ink. As the children advance further they become able to calculate all sorts of things connected with school accounts, such as, from the number of children in the school, how large the rooms need to be, what would be the consequent requirements in heating and the cost of their installation and upkeep.

Finally, reviews of all the matters learned are effected through a system of cards covering the



various stations and operations. This corresponds a good deal to those worked out by Courtis, Carleton Washburne, and others, in America. There is, indeed, in the more advanced work a tendency toward individuation in the method. *Pryns Hopkins*

**The Problem Parent.** By A. S. Neill. (Herbert Jenkins. 5s.)

Every parent should read Mr. A. S. Neill's latest book, *The Problem Parent*. It is crammed with commonsense and understanding, and for the most part is a wise book. Unfortunately, however, such a book is of more educational value to those who have already had their eyes opened to some extent, than to the masses of parents who unconsciously wear blinkers.

Its statements are true and to the point, and the book is anything but laboriously written. How far, however, Mr. Neill's particular presentation of the subject, *The Problem Parent*, will affect the problem and remove his or her difficulties, or how far it will close their eyes still further, remains to be proved. For the problem parent was originally a mishandled child—so the vicious circle goes on and, if he is to be freed, he needs the same gentleness in the presentation of his problem as does the child. *M. A. Payne*

**The Child at Home: His Occupations and First Lessons.** By Nancy Catty. (Sidgwick & Jackson. 3s. 6d.)

The author states that her book is an attempt to help amateur teachers to understand the child's attitude to learning, and that she has three objects:

- (a) To help the untrained teacher to see what the child's difficulties are in learning formal subjects.
- (b) To state simply what it is that the child should learn.
- (c) To give help in how the necessary subjects should be taught.

She believes that when a child dislikes lessons it is a sign that the break between his own occupations and lessons has been unnecessarily sudden, and she advises that the child should be helped to realize that he needs the three R's to enlarge the scope of his own activities; she would seek to make him aware of this need before any teaching was given. If he sees that the lack of signposts and street names leaves his model village incomplete, and that he does not know how to give change to the customer in his shop, he will have his heart in his writing and arithmetic lessons.

At the same time Miss Catty does not unduly stress the 'all work should be made play' attitude, and she recommends the definite memorizing of tables, the spelling of difficult words, etc. She does not believe that a child should learn without effort, but that he should realize that what he acquires by the effort will make life richer for him.

Miss Catty is quite definite in her instructions; she heads one section 'What a Child should Know Before He goes to School at Ten'. Appendix I contains directions for playing many useful word and number

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games; Appendix II is devoted to suggestions for the schoolroom library.

The keynote of the book is the importance of keeping intellectual attainments in close relationship with life. Children whose education is started in this way should go to school believing that school work is going to help them to live more fully, not that it is an affair of marks and examinations quite removed from the life they wish to live. *C. Kennington*

**The Meaning of Psycho-Analysis.** By *M. W. Peck.* (Knopf, New York. \$2.50.)

In an introduction to this handy volume Dr. Bernard Glueck points to it as a healthy example of the better type of original books on psycho-analysis which are appearing in the United States after an era of irresponsible popularization. Some of this praise is deserved; nevertheless, not all of Dr. Peck's statements represent the psycho-analytic theory quite accurately.

To take an example, in his chapter on *The Psycho-analytic System of Psychology* the term 'repression' is used to cover the relegation of acquired habits from the plane of conscious to that of fore-conscious activity. Slips of this kind are doubtless due to the same factor which is responsible for the book's outstanding merits—namely that the volume is an enlargement of lectures on psycho-analysis (delivered before the Harvard Medical School).

The man who has had to teach his subject to a class of young people develops a certain clarity of viewpoint, a certain orderly arrangement of subject matter, and an engagingness of style which is lacking in some of the books written by persons without such experience. The present work has these merits in a strong degree. It is replete with illustrative cases. Its descriptions of what actually goes on in the psycho-analytic consulting room, and how the neurotic tendencies of the analysand bring up problems and difficulties in the actual work of analysis itself, are a distinctive feature which give an atmosphere of concreteness to the book and much pleasurable satisfaction of curiosity to the reader.

*Pryns Hopkins*

**Young People's Bible Book.** By *F. J. Gould.* (Watts. 7s. 6d.)

This book gives a fresh and readable summary of material from the Old and New Testaments, together with parallel stories from the literature and traditions of other nations and races. The Bible is treated as 'one long poem of music, legends and parables, mingled with glimpses of history'. The book suffers somewhat by attempting too much. In conception it is certainly interesting and suggestive, but it is too closely packed with diverse material to leave a clear and satisfying impression on the mind of the reader. The illustrations are an attractive feature of a book which will be appreciated by many in spite of the weaknesses consequent on the difficulty of the task attempted.

*J. W. D. Smith*

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# THE NEW ERA

## IN HOME AND SCHOOL

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### Outlook Tower

**T**HERE is never a problem child, there is only a problem parent. The child usually becomes a problem because its parents do not understand the nature of the child. In other cases the child becomes a problem because the parents do not understand themselves.'

Like all the Dominie's books, *The Problem Parent* is readable—most books dealing with education are not. It makes one think furiously and disagree violently—that is probably what he intended. One of its chief effects is to make one wonder why one ever dared to be a parent at all. For it is not so much our ideals as our practice that will affect our children; it is our unconscious influences that will make or mar them.

*The Influence of the Home* The headmaster of a large school remarked recently that ultimately it is the type of home a child comes from that determines his conduct and his attitudes. We parents are only too well aware of this. All around us there are cases of children whose lives are marred by disharmony between the parents. There are cases in which the lack of that sense of security so essential to the development of a young child has laid the foundation of many later maladjustments. There are cases where over-affection and fears have deprived a child of his essential independence.

Even for the well-adjusted parent, there are difficult problems in the upbringing of his children. There is a tendency to swing from the old over-strictness to a licence that is unfair to the child, who must be guided in the control of himself and his tools of expression. There is the problem of what to teach our children about religion; problems of adolescence—particularly in this modern world where adolescents claim

more freedom than in any period; the problem of choosing a career. How shall we develop international-mindedness, culture, the humane outlook in our children, without preaching at them? There are school problems of all kinds; shall we send our children away to boarding-school; shall we choose a co-educational school; must we send them to the nearest State school, whether we approve of its régime or not; to what extent can a parent co-operate with the teachers without its being deemed interference?

*Changes in Family Life* These and many other problems confront all classes of parents. While there is much for us to learn we must be careful where we seek advice, for if we bring to the task of parenthood the wrong kind of seriousness we shall be beaten before we start. One of the worst types of problem parent is the faddist. Apart from wise affection, parenthood calls for a reasonable amount of intelligence, sympathetic tolerance, a sense of proportion and a sense of humour. In ordinary times these have usually proved sufficient, but to-day man is having to make abnormal adjustments to fit himself to the needs of this new world which has been created by swift scientific expansion. The changes that are taking place in our modern world are probably nowhere greater than in the home. There are radical modifications in the older type of family. A woman must be able to pursue her own career and express her own individuality. She has a definite rôle to play in modern life, and no longer owes her whole importance to the fact that she is the wife of So-and-So. All this is demanding adjustments on the part of both men and women that are bound to affect the home and the child.

Aldous Huxley stated recently in an inter-



view: 'I can imagine that, if there were another great upheaval of civilization, family life might be eliminated. After all, it has practically gone in Russia and it seems to me to be vanishing in America, where the children are very little under the control of the parents. Do I welcome the Brave New World? Not particularly myself, but, given the big idea of the State, it seems to me that the tendency will be for the elimination of the smaller states of family life.'

But in opposition to this view there is growing evidence that a child deprived of a normal family background in the early years is likely to prove a problem adult, and many of us believe that one of the keynotes of a new age should be not the elimination of family life, but a family life re-organized and re-adjusted to meet modern conditions.

For many years now much attention has been given to child welfare. All over the world one may claim that physical hygiene has prevented a great deal of physical damage to children. Today we are being urged to attend not only to physical but to mental hygiene. The public is still inclined to think that a Child Guidance Clinic need be resorted to only for the abnormal child, just as we used to think we need go to the dentist only when we actually had toothache. The clinic should be used in the same way as the medical and dental clinic, for inspection at regular intervals, in order that the full development of the whole child may be aided and guided by experts co-operating fully with the parents.

*The Whole Child* For twelve years the editorial policy of the *New Era* has been to maintain that the child must be viewed as a whole and not from any isolated angle. It is the parent's business to realize what the school is doing and trying to do for his children; it is the teacher's business to know something of the homes from which his pupils come, and to recognize the claim that the home exerts upon a child's interest and time. In the same way, the school itself should be less departmentalized. Every adult who is in any way responsible for a child should see and know him as a whole. In addition to the study of the whole child we believe that social change can only be achieved through education. We see around us a world

peopled with far too high a percentage of problem adults, who, because of their own maladjustments, are bringing into their human relationships qualities which are responsible for many of our national and international difficulties, as well as for a great number of unhappy lives. Many of us see in education the key to the future. But it must be an education based on a philosophy of the whole child; it must apply the psychological principles of human growth and development, and it must evolve new techniques and methods in home and school.

*A Parents' Supplement* Such an editorial policy —the Whole Child in a Whole World—is necessarily one that appeals only to enlightened parents and teachers, but the belief that we need more people in education imbued with the philosophy of wholeness has made us persevere. It has been suggested, however, that the material for parents might be usefully presented in a form which could be reproduced as a supplement and, if necessary, sold separately, so as to be available to the many groups for parental education and child study that are springing up in different parts of Great Britain. And since our purpose is to be of service to the greatest number, we have willingly consented to try this plan, commencing in this issue and continuing in September, when a regular parents' supplement will be found in the magazine. This will contain, among other material, outline study courses suitable for parents' circles, organized to allow parents to meet under the leadership of one of their own members to study and discuss some of the problems that confront every parent. The study courses will be three-fold; one for the pre-school child, one for the school child and one for the adolescent.

But this concentrating of material specifically intended for parents in one part of the magazine will defeat our editorial policy unless parents will read the material intended for teachers and vice versa. The influence of education on social change will only be real in the measure in which educators, parents and teachers are willing to study not only the fraction of the problem which happens to be their immediate concern, but the essential elements in the problem as a whole.



# The Key to To-Morrow—V

## The Education of the Emotions

JOHN MACMURRAY

MY PURPOSE in this article is a simple one. I wish to draw attention to the importance of the development of the emotional life, to some of the underlying principles which govern any attempt at emotional education and to the effects which must follow from a failure in this department of education. I have no programme of reform to press and no practical suggestions to make. I am not an educationalist but a philosopher and must perforce remain within the limits of my competence.

### The Reconstruction of Discipline

There is an increasing recognition in educational circles of the urgent need for a proper training of the emotions. But there is no corresponding understanding, it seems to me, of the nature of the task, so that efforts to meet the need have a curious way of tending, in the result, to defeat their own object. The traditional methods, which are now for the most part happily superseded, or at least out of favour, have been that of a stern discipline of punishment and repression. It would be generally admitted that in its worst forms this old fashioned discipline was barbarous, and that in principle its effects were likely to prove disastrous. That 'policeman' attitude of the teacher to the child has been largely replaced by a more humane conception. Yet there is reason to doubt whether the older attitude was not more satisfactory than some of the methods which have replaced it, particularly those which rest on an appeal to the child's 'better nature'. The older disciplinary methods, if

they rested upon fear, yet avoided the more subtle dangers of exploiting the child's natural affection and reverence for authority.

### Disciplined Thought

We must agree, I think, that the training of the emotions is a disciplining of the instinctive reactions of the human animal. But the important question is about the meaning of discipline. The great distinction we have to draw is between discipline imposed by authority and that discipline which is discovered in

experience. These are fundamentally different in kind. The distinction may be grasped more easily by reference to the intellectual life. Thought may be disciplined, as it was in mediæval times, by authority. Mediæval dogmatism said to the thinker: 'This is the truth. You must learn to think in such a way that you reach such and such conclusions.

If you do not, your thinking is bad thinking, because we know that these conclusions are the true ones.' Such a discipline of thought, as we should all agree, is a repression of thought. It succeeds in securing conformity in all thinkers, and so in avoiding controversy and strife. But it does so by destroying the very springs of real thinking. Compared with this, modern scientific thought is free and undogmatic. But it is not undisciplined. It finds its discipline in the effort to think, in the spontaneous intellectual experience itself. It is disciplined by the necessity of securing a real conformity to that which it thinks about. The result is a multiplicity of theories and conclusions, a continuous struggle

*Professor MacMurray says:*

1. *Emotional education should be a considered effort to teach children to feel for themselves*
2. *Thinking is not living. At its worst it is a substitute for living; at its best a means to living better*
3. *We worship efficiency and success; we do not know how to live finely. This is almost wholly due to our failure to educate the emotional life*



between rival thinkers, a very Babel of intellectual strife. Yet we all agree that such freedom is the very life-blood of thought; and in theory at least we stand for the liberty of the individual to think for himself.

### Disciplined Emotion

The difference between the two types of discipline in the emotional field is precisely the same. The discipline of authority aims at securing the repression of types of emotion that are considered improper or bad, at fostering emotional tendencies that are laudable and good. This is no doubt possible. It makes for conformity, for frictionless social relationships, for the maintaining of tradition. But it succeeds only by destroying the free spontaneity of emotional life. Against this dogmatic authority we must set our faith in the freedom of the individual to feel for himself, to develop his own emotional gifts and graces, and to reach out towards the discovery of the value of life, not through the acceptance of standards of good feeling, nor through the imposition of intellectual conceptions of goodness upon his emotional life, but through the free exercise of his own emotional capacities. That this involves discipline is certain; but it is a discipline of a very different kind. It is the discipline which comes through the continuous effort to reach the real values in life for oneself.

Emotional education should be, therefore, a considered effort to teach children to feel for themselves; in the same sense as the intellectual training should be an effort to teach them to think for themselves.

So long as we start with the assumption that we know how people ought to feel, and that it is our business to teach our pupils to feel in that way, the less successful we are the better. We have to realize how feeble and ineffective our own emotional life is; and to realize that for that very reason our notions of what is good feeling and what is not are also feeble and probably false. Then we shall perhaps start to discover what we can do to develop in children the real capacity for a spontaneous emotional life which has been so stunted in ourselves. One of the first results of such a fundamental change of attitude would be, I doubt not, that we should recognize that it is as ridiculous to put the

emotional training of children in the hands of teachers whose emotional life is of a low grade or poorly developed as it is to commit their intellectual education to teachers who are intellectually unintelligent and stupid.

### Emotional Life and the Senses

This is the real alteration in attitude which is needed. If we assume that we approach the question of emotional training in this spirit, we can go on to ask in detail what are the main lines along which it can be carried out. We shall then have to notice that the emotional life is peculiarly sensuous, and that the training of emotion is primarily an education of the senses. Most of our failure in the education of the senses arises from the fact that we look upon them from a practical point of view as instruments for the achievement of practical ends; with the result that so far as we train children at all in their sensuous life, we train them to use their senses for practical purposes. Sensibility, however, is an integral part of human nature and must be developed for its own sake. It is only thus that it directly concerns the emotional life and shows itself as an essential element in a fully developed humanity. We have to train children to make their sensuous life rich and fine; to see for the sake of seeing, to hear for the joy of hearing, to smell and taste and touch for the joy of living in and through the fundamental capacities of apprehension with which they are endowed.

Such an education would aim at what William Blake once called, in a moment of inspiration, 'the refinement of sensuality'. In our cruder scientific terminology we might call it the development of sensuous discrimination and co-ordination. What makes us afraid of the manifestation of sensuous life is its crudeness and vulgarity, but that is merely the mark of its primitive, undeveloped nature. It is precisely this that a proper education of the senses must deal with. It must find means to develop the capacity of the senses to reach a level of subtle and refined discrimination in what they apprehend, and the capacity to co-ordinate the discriminations of the various senses and harmonize them with one another. Crudeness and vulgarity in the expression of emotion are invariably the result of crudeness and lack of



refinement in sense-perception. The suppression of such offensive *expressions* of emotion (which is in the main what we still aim at) makes no difference to the quality of human life. If a man's nature is crude, it must of necessity be restrained if only for the convenience of others. But the business of education is to make such restraint unnecessary by the refinement of the nature upon which they must be imposed.

### Perception and Activity

There is a direct connection, fundamental to all life, between sensuous perception and practical activity. The connection may be checked and thwarted up to a point; but never completely. Human life, like all life, only completes itself in the connection of immediate apprehension with action which expresses what it has become aware of. It is in this immediacy of response in action to conscious perception that all the activities of thought inevitably fall. Intellectual intelligence can never be a substitute, therefore, for the immediacy of perceptual activity. It may enrich life by raising it to a higher level or it may impoverish it by negation and repression. The second field, therefore, in the education of the emotional life is the field of spontaneous expression. The sensuous apprehension of the world for its own sake without ulterior motives is our emotional receptivity; and that will complete itself, if it is not frustrated, in activities which are spontaneities of emotion, in activities which are performed for their own sake and not for any end beyond them.

Such expressions of emotion in activity—whether in speech or song or movement—are at first crude and indiscriminate. The business of education is not to alter their spontaneous character but to refine and subtilize them, maintaining their spontaneous character so that the development of grace and fineness in activity is still without other motive than the joy of expression. Other things being equal, fineness of expression and of sensory discrimination go hand in hand so that there are not two separate trainings requisite, but one only, in which the development of fine sensory discrimination is achieved through the effort to express what is sensuously apprehended, and the effort to develop the sensory discrimination is undertaken through the effort to express it in

activity of some kind. It is not my part to determine the methods through which this is to be done. Those whose business it is to experiment with teaching methods will be able to devise such methods without much difficulty provided they are clear in their minds what it is that they wish to develop. And what is of fundamental importance to keep in the centre of our consciousness is that the education of the emotional life, whether on the side of sensuous apprehension or of activities of expression, must have no ulterior or utilitarian motive. It is an education in spontaneity, and therefore, both the awareness and the activity which it seeks to refine and cultivate are ends in themselves. We are seeking, in this field, to make children exquisitely aware of the world in which they live, purely for its own sake, because it is an increase in the quality of life in them. We are seeking to develop a fineness of expressive activity because it is good in itself, not in any sense because of what may be achieved through it.

### Æsthetic Education

It is plain that when such an education reaches a certain level it becomes an education in the activities of the artist. This is the necessary issue of any proper training of the emotions. It is a development of the artistic as distinct from the scientific capacities of human nature. I can point my moral, therefore, by reference to what is wrong with such æsthetic education as is normally included in the ordinary school curriculum. It turns education in art into an intellectual or scientific activity, and becomes not a training in artistry but a training of the mind in the analysis and understanding of the artistry of others. The proper training of the æsthetic capacities is, as I have described it, a training in perception and expression, which in its full effect would develop to the fullest measure of which the pupil is capable his ability to be an artist; that is to say, to apprehend the world finely through his own sensibility and to express his apprehension in spontaneous activity, purely for the joy of doing so.

### Education in Living

There is no space to develop this fundamental conception further. I wish rather to conclude



the article by considering the results of a failure to educate the emotional life in this way, which is, in principle, the only way in which it can be educated. I want to indicate my opinion that to neglect this side of a child's training, or to fail in it, is to fail completely in the primary business of education.

The emotional life is not simply a part or an aspect of human life. It is not, as we so often think, subordinate or subsidiary to the mind. It is the core and essence of human life. The intellect arises out of it, is rooted in it, draws its nourishment and sustenance from it, and is the subordinate partner in the human economy. This is because the intellect is essentially instrumental. Thinking is not living. At its worst it is a substitute for living; at its best a means to living better. As we have seen, the emotional life is our life, both as awareness of the world and as action in the world, so far as it is lived for its own sake. Its value lies in itself, not in anything beyond it which it is a means of achieving. Now any educational ideal which is fully conscious of its function must refuse to treat human life as a means to an end. It must insist that its sole duty is to develop the inherent capacity for a full human life. All true education is education in living.

#### **An Instrumental Conception of Life**

But the effect of concentrating upon the education of the intellect to the exclusion of the education of the emotional life is precisely to frustrate this purpose. Because the intellect is concerned with the means of living, the exclusive concentration upon its training and the relegation of the emotional life to a subordinate position can only result in making our pupils capable of determining the means to human life and very little capable of living it. It will inevitably create an instrumental conception of life, in which all human activity will be valued as a means to an end, never for itself. When it is the persistent and universal tendency in any society to concentrate upon the intellect and its training, the result will be a society which amasses power and with power the means to the good life, but which has no correspondingly developed capacity for living the good life for which it has gained the means. This is, to my mind, very obviously the state in which we now

find ourselves and our European civilization. We have immense power and immense resources; we worship efficiency and success; and we do not know how to live finely. I should trace this condition of affairs almost wholly to our failure to educate the emotional life.

#### **Emotion the Unifying Factor**

Another result of this failure must be the destruction of wholeness. The intellect, because it is instrumental, can only deal with life piecemeal. It must divide and it must abstract. It is in the emotional life that the unity of personality—its individual and its social unity—is realized and maintained. It is in emotional activity that this unity is expressed. Emotion is the unifying factor in life. The failure to develop the emotional life will, therefore, result in abstraction and division, in a failure to see life steadily and whole. When the intellect takes charge the inevitable result is specialization, the erection of particular aspects of human activity into complete conceptions of life, the substitution of the part for the whole. A practical disintegration of life, a disjointedness in conception and in practice, is the consequence. Both the individual and society will be infected with the narrow vision of the specialist, which makes balance and rhythm and wholeness unrealizable and even inconceivable. Here again our own failure to educate the emotional life shows itself in the competition within us which we cannot co-ordinate, and in the competition of rival claims and interests, factions and nations within our society. Though circumstances have forced upon us the intellectual realization of the necessity for achieving unity and wholeness in our social life, national and international, we find ourselves incapable of achieving the unity which we so urgently and consciously need.

I do not think that I have overstated the case. Nor do I think that I could have used the opportunity which this article gives me to better advantage than in stressing the urgent need of giving full and prior consideration to the necessity for a true emotional training. I do not profess to have given any guidance to educationalists. I do hope that I may have succeeded in drawing their attention to the most urgent educational need of our time.



# First Steps to Freedom



*Teachers and pupils alike are finding in Projects not only an interesting outlet for energy and ideas but a very real means of education.*

*The HORSE OF TROY project depicted above started as an outgrowth of a history lesson at the Community School, St. Louis. But by the time it was completed the children had gained much, not only in initiative and 'finitiative' but in arithmetic, fine and industrial arts, English and some knowledge of at least the outward aspects of Greek life.*



# A Link between Home and School

RAYMOND KING

MANY of us read with admiration and envy Miss Stone's article in the March issue of the *New Era* on the subject of parent-teacher co-operation: admiration for the thorough-going zeal and range of experiment characteristic of so many American educational developments, and envy for the novel opportunities offered in the Community School.

Miss Stone's particular scheme could hardly be transplanted wholesale into an English school, but many of the methods and suggestions are in line with what is already being done in certain schools in England and it is helpful to read of what is working so successfully at St. Louis.

## Joint Responsibility

Home and school are jointly responsible for the education of the young, and I propose to outline here a method, which I have called the Tutorial System, which is enabling the two to co-operate closely, without doing any violence to the English tradition.

Two important changes have come to pass in the English schools during the last generation. First, the old idea of mutual antagonism between teacher and taught, the 'natural enemy principle', has given place to a much more friendly and natural relationship; and second, the old widespread hostility between parents and teachers, that arose and persisted mainly as a result of compulsory primary education, is fast disappearing. Both these changes are aspects of a third: the growth of the theory and practice of child psychology and the more human and humane treatment of the young.

The Tutorial System is an attempt to foster and exploit these new influences both in and out of school. It is a social division of the school into 'families' under the tutelage of teachers who are responsible for the general welfare of their charges during their whole school career. The tutor-set is of limited size and contains boys of all ages, thus constituting a vertical as opposed to the usual horizontal division of the school. It is frequently a sub-section of the 'House', which is normally so large a unit that no indi-

vidual teacher can stand *in loco parentis* to every boy under his charge.

## The Tutor in School

Without going into details of the working of the system (for which see the *Journal of Education*, April, 1932), the following features may be stressed, as they directly affect the question under discussion.

The tutor mediates in all matters of discipline between his boys and the rest of the staff; he compiles complete records of all his charges; he interests himself in their whole activity, academic, social and athletic, and cultivates their confidence in himself as guide, philosopher and friend. The majority of the staff are tutors and each places his services and special knowledge of his boys at the disposal of his colleagues.

The tutorial relation benefits the school generally, producing a sympathetic, friendly atmosphere; it is good for the individual teacher since it keeps him human; it ensures for the headmaster (or for any other member of the staff) access to full and intimate knowledge of every pupil; and apart from these indirect advantages, the individual pupil gains immeasurably from the benefits of special familiarity with his foster-parent.

## The Tutor and the Home

But the feature of the system to which attention is especially directed here is the cultivation by the tutor of the closest possible acquaintance with the parents of the boys under his care. He tries to win their confidence and co-operation both for himself and the school. A tactful and able tutor should be at least as valued a friend of the family as is the family physician. Plainly, if the system is to work at its best, parents must play their part, and experience shows that they are usually fully responsive if the school takes the lead in claiming their help and support.

Where the tutor is in cordial relations with the parent he can help to ensure that the norms of conduct and diligence are not subject to a too violent daily fluctuation and that there is



unity between what is expected from the boy, both in work and conduct, in the home and in the school. We should have fewer 'difficult' pupils if each had in at least one member of the staff a friend whose help he could depend on outside of lessons.

#### Parents and the School

Parents should be able to visit the school periodically when it is in ordinary session and see their boys at work in much the same way as they are frequently encouraged to come and see them at play. Perhaps the best way is to invite them by tutor-sets, freeing the tutor for the afternoon to act as their guide. Speech Days, exhibitions of work, and 'show days' have their uses, but they are of little immediate value for the purpose under discussion. Once a year at least, and preferably much more often, parents should be given a chance to see for themselves how their boy shapes in the classroom, the laboratory, the workshop and the gymnasium, and to get some first-hand idea of what the schools of to-day are trying to do and of the methods, apparatus and equipment of the modern classroom.

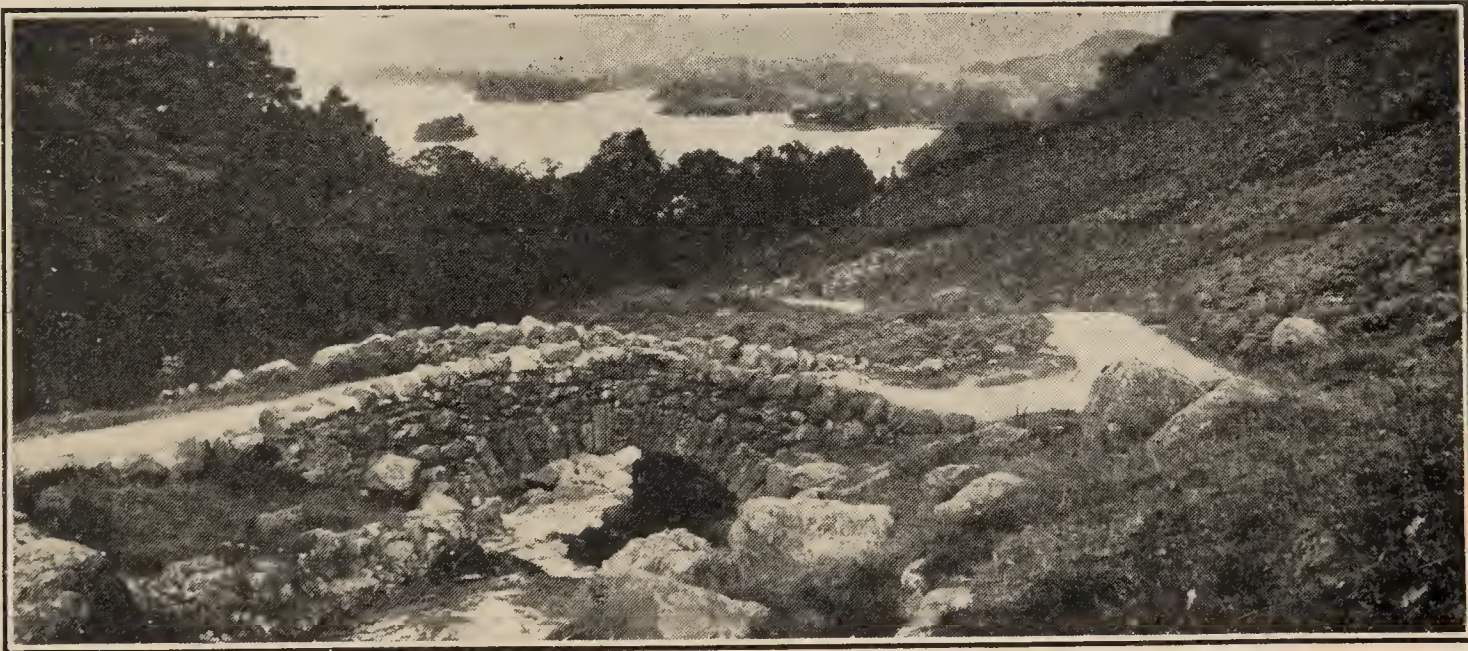
But besides satisfying the parent that his boy's individual welfare is being studied, the Tutorial System provides a means of organizing parents corporately to take an interest in the aims of the school as a whole. It is quite usual nowadays for the parents to foregather with the teachers in a general meeting once a term. But such association lacks continuity and direction, and as a rule leaves nothing to the initiative of the parents themselves. If parents are organized, not in the mass but in small tutor-sets, the members of each set have a chance to get to know one another, to elect representatives to a parents' council, and through these representatives, to voice their views to the school authorities.

#### The Parents' Council

The parents' council, consisting of one or two representatives from each tutor-set, is closely and fairly continuously associated with the headmaster and staff.

While on general grounds the institution of a parents' circle is to be regarded as a definite good, some school authorities fight shy of it out of fear of creating machinery through which the

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TOP: *Staking a Claim in the School Garden*    CENTRE: *A Tutorial Tea Party*    BOTTOM: *After a Bathe at Trieste*



irresponsible and carping critic may make a nuisance of himself. The danger is not really great and can almost always be nipped in the bud if the parents' council is kept well informed, and inspired with enthusiasm for the school. Ignorant criticism is bound to disappear as enlightened interest is cultivated.

The province of the parents' council should be clearly defined, so as to avoid their trespassing upon the functions of the central or local authorities, the governing body and the staff. Once their function is made clear and their energies confined to matters within their own province, both the school and the community will gain. Much will be done to break down the highly artificial barrier that at present separates school life from the life of the community, to the impoverishment of both.

#### Parent Education

Given a live and well-informed parents' council in league with the teaching staff, the plans to educate the parents in the moral, disciplinary and social ideals of the school may

confidently be put into execution. The first line of advance is to provide opportunities for parents to acquaint themselves with the results of modern research into the psychology of childhood and adolescence. For this there is both a crying need and a gradually growing demand. An increasing percentage of present-day parents are sufficiently educated to realize their need for this vital information and sufficiently articulate to express it. They are dimly aware of the new knowledge, but lack opportunity to acquire it. Through association with the school arising out of the tutorial system, parents may be led to carry on such studies under the guidance of experts, side by side with the teachers, and to bring the knowledge they gain to bear upon the problems of their own children in collaboration with the tutors.

This is what the pioneers of the movement in England are attempting to do. Other developments are bound to follow more widespread experimentation in this direction. We must go ahead—to use the recent words of the Prince of Wales—‘with boldness and originality’.

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*of the*

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# The Lichtwark School—Hamburg

HEINRICH LANDAHL

## Aims of the School

IT is not easy to describe the character of the Lichtwark School in a brief article, for the school has been based upon no definite pedagogic theory nor built in accordance with a fixed programme. A little group of practical and unprejudiced teachers, thrown together by chance in a small suburban *Realschule* in 1919, became its founders. From the outset they discovered that they had two things in common: a critical attitude towards all traditional methods and the curricula of the existing schools; and an eagerness to test frankly all methods and experiments in education. Agreement upon these two points formed the basis of their co-operation.

Their aim was to free the fundamental principles of education from the slag and rubbish beneath which they had been buried. Only by thus getting back to first principles can the school find its place as a living entity in the scheme of present-day life; and it is only as a living entity that the school has meaning and effectiveness. The Lichtwark School takes shape and grows in the practical, daily co-operation of teachers and scholars. Its strength lies in the development of the individuality of every class and in the full effect that it gives to the personality of every teacher. This produces a considerable variety in modes of work and in moral and intellectual attitudes. This very variety is healthy, since it is based upon simple, natural things.

Only when a school realizes itself as a great fellowship of living personalities can it be preserved from shrinking and stiffening into an institute for the imparting of cultural values. Not cultural values, but young life itself must be regarded as the focus of a school's activities. With such a fundamental outlook, the school is characterized by intense life but not by any

rigid form. The Lichtwark School has been in existence for twelve years, and during this time it has passed through many changes. It is obvious that this article can offer only a brief report, with some indication of the school's essential characteristics.

## Co-Education

Co-education exists in Germany only in a few of the higher State schools, and even there only because in most of the smaller towns there is no High School for girls. Though it was introduced into the Lichtwark School for this reason, we realised the

interest of the experiment and put a great deal of thought and effort into making the most of it. The results have been of very positive benefit. The fact that boys and girls are working together lends to the school an essential contact with reality, and we now consider co-education

to be an indispensable basis of our work.

## Class System

Wherever possible the same teachers follow up a given class during the course of several years. This enables the class to find itself as a group, realize its most vital interest and discover its own rhythm of working. Classes are the cells that build up the school. Each has a definite life of its own, though the organization of the group is elastic, not crystallized under any such label as 'self-government'.

The relation between teacher and pupil is based upon trust. There is practically no need for punishment; corporal punishment is strictly forbidden. Terminal reports are replaced by detailed yearly reports, both on the individual pupil and on the class as a whole. The class system is carried right to the top of the school. At one time we introduced group-work and

*Why have the Hamburg schools interested educators ever since 1919? This article, which describes one of them, shows that they have introduced the principles of new education into a whole State system*

*The Lichtwark School gives education for fuller living;*

*It considers the child—not the subject;*

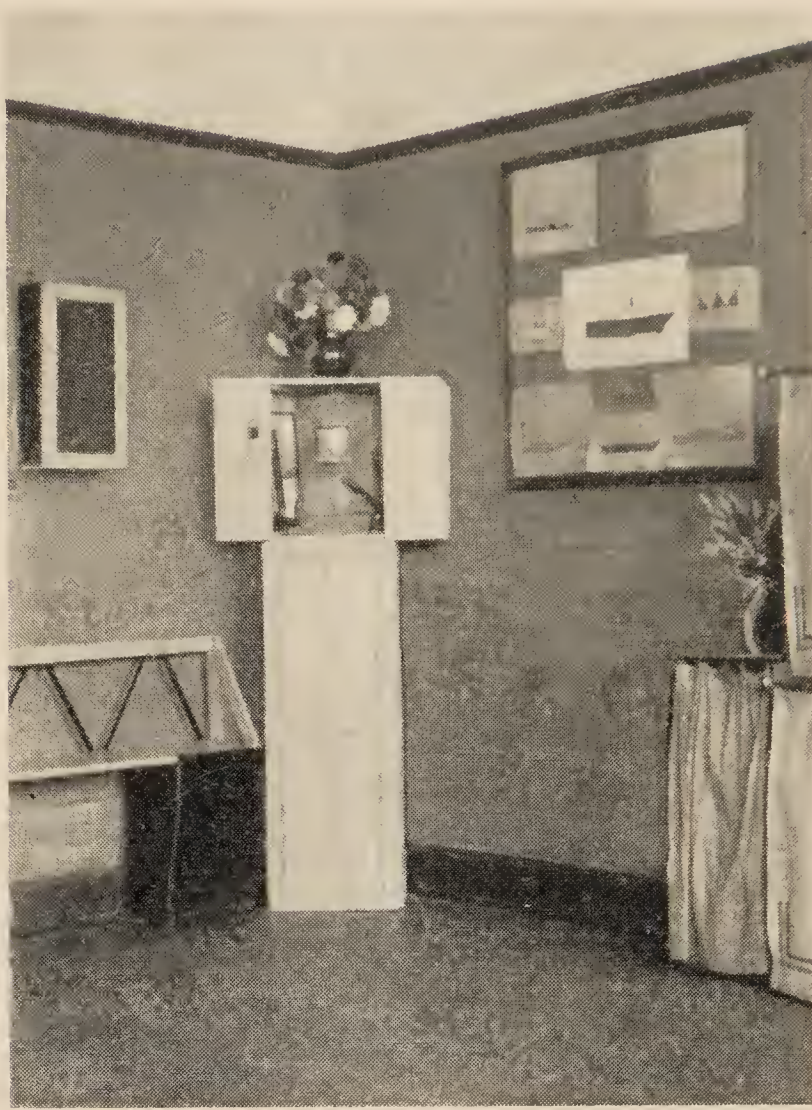
*It aims at co-operation—not blind obedience*



## GERMAN CHILDREN FURNISH A MODERN SCHOOL

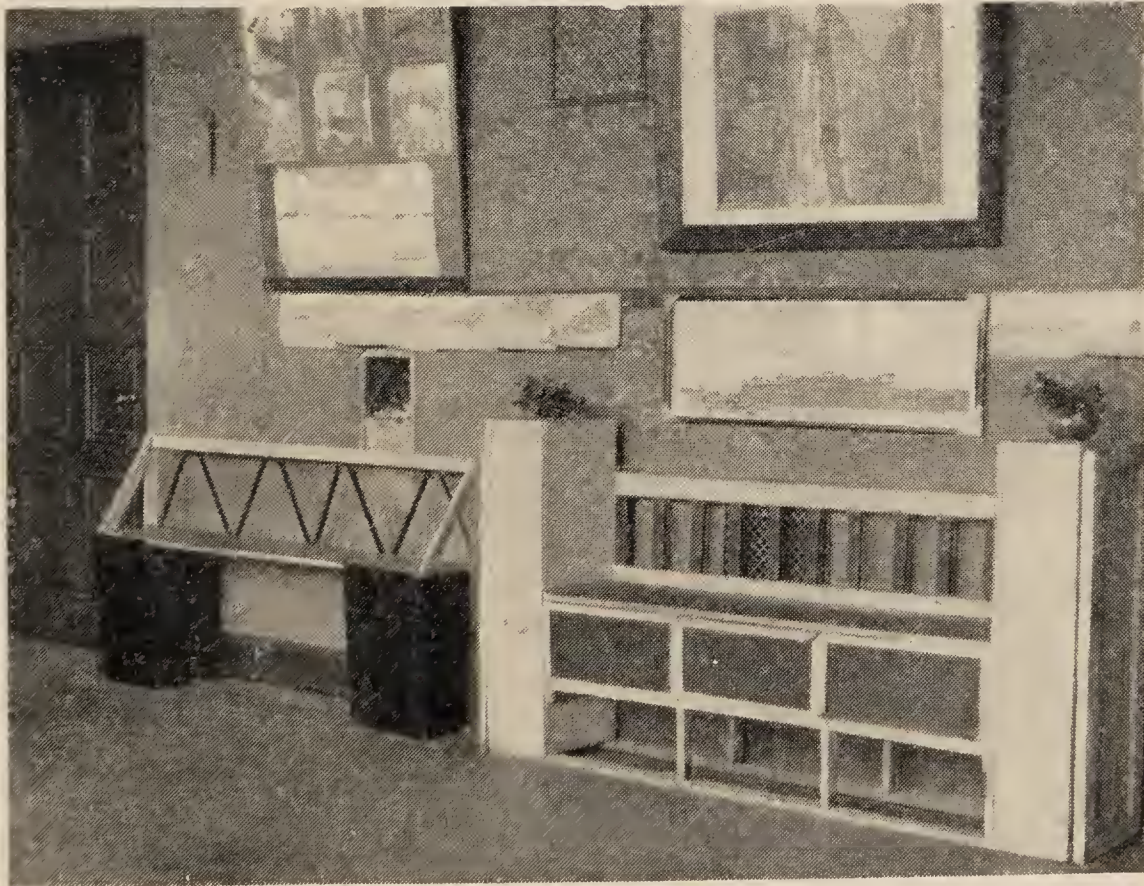


*Corner Seat and Table*



*Tool Cupboard*

*Craft work occupies a very important place in the curriculum of the Hamburg Elementary Schools. These illustrations show furniture made by the children at the Versuchsschule Telemannstrasse,*



*Benches and Lockers*

*where a whole day a week is given to craft work. The children are replacing the old cumbrous State equipment by this very satisfying modern furniture, made out of orange boxes and packing cases*



special courses in the upper forms, but we found that this tended to re-admit the tyranny of subject matter, and that individual work can be carried out equally well within the class under free methods of teaching. The half-year's or year's special work, which each scholar is required to undertake at home in the sphere of his personal interest, offers in the upper classes every opportunity for individual development.

### Curriculum

*Cultural Science*, in which German, History and Religion are considered as a whole unit, is the central factor of the work of the school. It is impossible to give any idea of the diverse ways in which this unit is tackled. Armed with a basic knowledge of the psychology of youth, the teacher allows both the methods and material to be determined by the gifts and interests that are predominant in a class. We have more or less perfected our technique in the upper forms during the last few years. We are now occupied with the more difficult business of arranging the work at the intermediate stage.

*Foreign Languages*. We give less instruction in foreign languages at the Lichtwark School than is common at most German High Schools. English is our chief language, and considerable time is devoted to it from the sixth class (ten-year-olds) to the top of the school. We employ the Direct Method and our aim throughout is to study the present-day problems of the British Empire and its civilization.

We are obliged to teach a second language, so that our leaving certificate may be recognized by the universities. Each pupil chooses between Latin and French, and his choice is usually determined by the career he wishes to take up. This is almost the only matter in which utilitarian considerations play any part.

*Natural Sciences*. The teaching of natural science is based upon practical laboratory work. In this respect we are badly hampered by restrictions in the State grant for equipment. Even apart from this the social science still lacks co-ordination with the natural sciences, although the whole staff definitely recognizes in principle the indispensable educational value of the latter to the youth of to-day. We are

seeking to overcome, or at least to mitigate, the preponderance of social science.

### School Journeys

Every spring or autumn each class goes off for a tour of study and this has been found greatly to enhance the class-work throughout the year. From year to year the destinations are carefully chosen so that the horizon of each class is constantly extended. A change of dominant interest characterizes the successive journeys. Consideration is given to art (architecture, galleries, parks), history (monasteries, castles and cities), economics and sociology (industrial areas, capital cities, agricultural districts), geography, geology and biology. In these study travels the arrangements are of the simplest and the costs are kept within the lowest possible limits. The present great financial distress will curtail both the duration and the distance of the journeys this year. But we hope to be able to carry out the plan in a modest way in August 1932, so as not to forfeit this great source of stimulus.

### Creative Activities and Physical Training

Recognizing the importance of giving creative release to the æsthetic and emotional faculties of children, we have arranged for music, drawing and handicrafts to be taught throughout the school. Dramatic work also plays a great part, especially in the life of the lower and middle school. This takes the form of spontaneous plays, done by a single class for its own pleasure, and also of performances in which the whole school takes part, for the pleasure of their parents and the friends of the school.

The Lichtwark School is probably the only High School in Germany in which every pupil spends an hour a day in the gymnasium. We consider this particularly important in a town school, where great demands are made upon the intellectual forces of a child. We do not aim at training a race of athletes or record-breakers. But each pupil spends definite time each day in the care and development of his body, so as to achieve suppleness and balance. In this way we seek to establish a healthy equilibrium between mental and physical growth.



# International Notes

## NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION OF GREAT BRITAIN, 32 Bloomsbury Street, W.C.2

*Organizing Secretary*—The Nursery School Association of Great Britain has been fortunate in securing the services of Miss Effie Ryle, M.A., as part time Organizing Secretary. Miss Ryle is well known for her social work in Reading and for the part she has played in the Adult School Movement. As temporary Chairman of the N.S.A. Executive during Miss de Lissa's absence, she has come into close touch with the nursery school movement. She brings added strength and energy to the Association at a time when redoubled efforts are needed.



*The Prince of Wales at the Bensham Grove Nursery School*—Very encouraging is the account given of the visit of the Prince of Wales to the Bensham Grove Nursery School when on his recent tour of the Social Services Centres on Tyneside. His Royal Highness spent half an hour at the School. 'He stepped through the doorway in a garden wall' says *The Times*, 'to find himself in the former gardens of Bensham Grove, now under cultivation as allotments, and then entered another glass and timber building with a covered verandah, where is now housed a Nursery School carried on by the Tyneside Nursery School Association. Here Miss Stewart has some fifty-five children under her care. These youngsters were too young to be self-conscious, and they romped and played in the Prince's presence, and indeed with the Prince himself, in the most unconcerned way.' 'Very fine work!' is reported to have been the comment of the Prince at the end of his visit.



Two recent magazine numbers are of special interest to workers in or for Nursery Schools.

*The Municipal Review* for March publishes in full a long memorandum on Nursery Schools drawn up, at the request of the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education, by the Education Committee of the Association of Municipal Corporations. Many important aspects of the problem are dealt with in a progressive spirit, and the Memorandum is full of interest and encouragement for the future.

*Education*, the organ of the Association of Education Committees, contains in the number for 29th April an interesting article written for the occasion of the opening of the Accrington Road Nursery School by Dr. Walter Howarth, Director of Education for Burnley. In conclusion Dr. Howarth says:—

'It can no longer be denied that Nursery Schools are as essential at one end of our system of education as the University is at the other. Only ignorance can describe them as an expensive experiment. . . the estimated cost per child in the nursery school for the coming year, inclusive of all expenditure, would appear to compare very favourably with that in respect of the provision for young children of the same age already in the infants' departments.'

## FELLOWSHIP NEWS

A group of the New Education Fellowship has been formed in Capetown under the guidance of a committee of four: Dr. de Vos Malan, Mr. W. H. Law, Principal of the Rondebosch Boys' Junior School, Mr. J. J. Jordaan, Principal of the Jan van Riebeeck School, and Mr. W. A. H. Chesters, Principal of the Salt River Training College. The formation of the Group was decided upon at a general meeting held under the chairmanship of Professor M. C. Botha, Superintendent-General of Education. We extend to this new Group our very cordial congratulations and goodwill.

The Union of South Africa will be well represented at the Nice Conference. Professor Botha will be one of the main speakers, Dr. Te Water of Pretoria will be giving a course and Mr. J. R. Lynch has been appointed official delegate for the Transvaal Teachers' Association.



*The Nice Conference*—Registrations are coming in steadily in spite of economic difficulties. These registrations are being received from all parts of the world and already include America, the Bahamas, Belgium, China, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain, Holland, Iceland, India, Iraq, Japan, Latvia, Mexico, Sweden and Switzerland. The programme promises to be a very rich one. Among those taking part are Sir Norman Angell, the well-known publicist, Dr. C. H. Becker (Vice-President of the Conference), formerly Minister of Education for Prussia, M. Bonnet, Head of the Paris Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, Professor Pierre Bovet (Vice-President of the Conference), of the Jean Jacques Rousseau Institute, Geneva, Dr. William Boyd of Glasgow University, Dr. Delisle Burns of Glasgow University, M. Châtelet, Rector of the University of Lille, M. Charton, Inspector General of Education in French West Africa, Professor Codignola, Head of the University Training College at Florence, M. Cousinet, Inspector of Education in France, Mr. Salter Davies, Director of Education for Kent, Dr. Ovide Decroly of the University of Brussels, Señor Lourenco Filho, Director of Public Instruction in Brazil, Mrs. Sidonie M. Gruenberg of the Child Study, Professor Paul Langevin of the Collège de France (President of the Conference), Lord Lugard, Chairman of the Mandates Commission of the League of Nations, Dr. James McDonald, Chairman of the Foreign Policy Association of New York, Dr. Maria Montessori, Dr. William Moodie of the London Child Guidance Clinic, Miss Helen Parkhurst of the Dalton School, New York, Professor Piaget of the Bureau International d'Education at Geneva, Dr. Elisabeth Rotten of the German Section of the N.E.F., Dr. Harold Rugg of Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York, Dr. Willi Schohaus, Professor Ulich of Dresden, Professor Wallon of the Sorbonne, and Dr. Carleton Washburne of Winnetka.



# THE NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

## THE WORLD TO-DAY

calls for concentration of educational effort throughout the world, since no merely national movement is in itself sufficient to meet the present crisis. Only through education in its widest sense can we hope to produce a new society capable of making proper use of the machinery for international co-operation which is now being set up in every field. A new attitude is required in all educational work, of which the following are the essential points:—

- (1) Education should equip us to understand the complexities of modern social and economic life, safeguarding freedom of discussion by the development of the scientific spirit.
- (2) It should make adequate provision for meeting diverse intellectual and emotional needs of different individuals, and should afford constant opportunity for active self-expression.
- (3) It should help us to adjust ourselves voluntarily to social requirements, replacing the discipline of fear and punishment by the development of intelligent initiative and responsibility.
- (4) It should promote collaboration between all members of the community. This is only possible where teachers and taught alike understand the value of diversity of character and independent judgment.
- (5) It should help us to appreciate our own national heritage and to welcome the unique contribution that every other national group can make to the culture of the world. The creation of world citizens is as important for the safety of modern civilisation as the creation of national citizens.

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The syllabus of Mr. A. J. Lynch's course of lectures on *Trends in Educational Practice* will be found on the page opposite *Outlook Tower*. We would urge our readers to join this course as Mr. Lynch's high attainments as a modern educationist vouch for its usefulness and interest.

## OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST

### Germany

The Second International Conference on Social Work is taking place at Frankfurt-am-Main from 11th to 14th July next. The Headquarters of the Conference will be at Messengelände, Platz der Republik.

The first Conference, at which forty countries were represented, was held in Paris in 1928 and was in essence a manifesto on the importance of their work by social reformers in all civilized countries. The second Conference will be concerned with the practical problem of the Family. The main addresses will be delivered by the Rev. J. C. Pringle of London, M. l'Abbé Viollet of Paris, Mrs. M. W. Glenn of New York, and Ministerialrat Dr. Gertrud Bäumer of Berlin. After these addresses the Conference will break up into six separate sections which will discuss (1) Medical Care of the Family, (2) Social Work and the Family, (3) Broken Homes, (4) Economic Protection of the Family, (5) Alien Families, (6) Cultural Education and the Family. A final session will consider the families of the unemployed.

Those wishing to take part in the Conference should apply to the Secretary-General, Professor Dr. W. Polligkeit, Frankfurt-am-Main, Stiftstrasse 30, Germany, enclosing an international money order for 20 marks made out to *Zweite Internationale Konferenz für Soziale Arbeit*. All Conference members receive free with their programme a publication entitled the *International Bulletin of Social Work*.

### Great Britain

Mr. T. F. Coade, M.A., has been appointed Headmaster of Bryanston School, Blandford, Dorset, on the retirement of Mr. T. G. Jeffreys. Bryanston School, which was founded in 1927, is one of the most interesting recent experiments in Public School education. Its main aim has been described as 'the preparation of boys for the business of life and a life of business'. For the past nine years Mr. Coade has been an assistant master at Harrow School, and at the age of thirty-five he becomes one of the youngest Public School Headmasters. He was educated at Harrow, the Royal Military College, and Christ Church, Oxford, where he passed with distinction in the Honours School of English Literature. Mr. Coade was editor of *Harrow Lectures on Education*, published last year.

The new profession of dietetics, which has developed so rapidly in America during the present century, is giving to the world women well trained

not only in domestic science but also in physiology, biochemistry, and in the nutritional aspects of health and disease of children and adults. The university degree course in England, as in America, is followed by at least six months' practical training in a hospital of high medical repute. (At the time of writing St. Bartholomew's and University College Hospital in London offer such training.)

The dietitian's task is a practical one, that of making scientific knowledge and discoveries in nutrition of value to all. Suitably trained dietitians are qualified for food administration (catering) in large institutions, for advising on the practical nutritional arrangements in the feeding of groups, in schools or government institutions for instance; and for the instruction of patients requiring special dietary treatment in hospital or out-patient clinics. They are also qualified to teach nurses, medical students and the general public, on questions of health and disease in which feeding plays a predominant part. Institutions whose catering entails the expenditure of large sums of money might consider the advantages of employing a dietitian, whose training especially qualified her to combine rigid economy with healthful nutrition.

The International Federation of Associations of Secondary Teachers is holding its Fourteenth Annual Congress in London from 18th to 23rd July next. His Majesty has graciously bestowed his patronage on the Congress and the Board of Education is giving its support. The arrangements for the Congress are being made by a Joint Committee of the Four Associations of Secondary Teachers of England and Wales. Items on the Agenda, as arranged by the Paris Congress, 1931, are as follows:

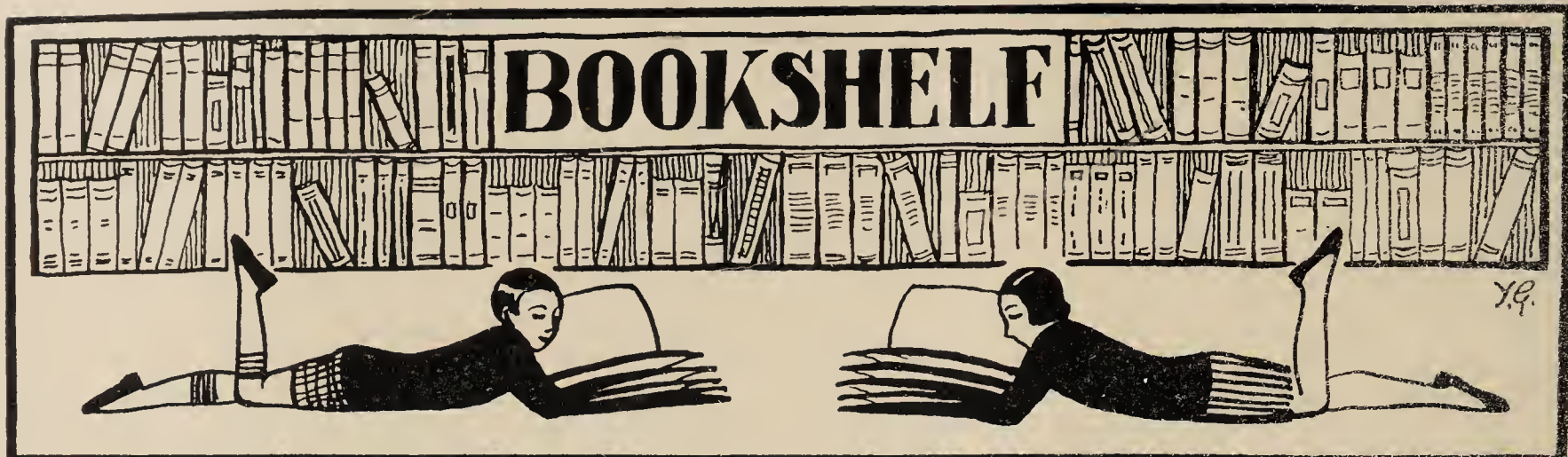
- (i) Out-of-School activities and their place in the secondary school organization
- (ii) The professional training of the secondary teacher
- (iii) Report on improvements which have taken place during the school year 1931-1932 in secondary school buildings and equipment from the points of view of teaching, aesthetics and hygiene
- (iv) The relations between the International Federation of Associations of Secondary Teachers and other international associations

For further particulars apply to the Secretary of the Organizing Committee, 29 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.

### Poland

Anyone interested in receiving a group of Polish children this summer should get in touch with the Polish Consulate General in London. These children will hope to come to England in order to improve their English and see something of English culture. In exchange collective trips are being planned to Poland. Considerable reductions in fares from England to Gdynia and on the Polish railways have been obtained.





**The Report of the Departmental Committee on Private Schools.** (*H.M. Stationery Office, May, 1932. 1s. 6d.*)

The Report of the Departmental Committee on Private Schools, appointed by Sir Charles Trevelyan eighteen months ago to inquire into the position of Private Schools in relation to the public authorities, was published at the beginning of May. At the request of this Committee, the New Education Fellowship submitted written and oral evidence concerning experimental work in Private Schools, together with certain recommendations. Thirty-four English schools of an unusual type concurred with the Fellowship memorandum.

Certain facts, still unknown to the ordinary public and often not realized by educationalists, are brought out in the Report. The Committee finds that there are approximately 10,000 Private Schools in existence in England, containing 400,000 pupils of all ages. Less than a quarter of these schools have been inspected by the Board of Education or by the Local Authorities, and very few have been inspected more than once since the War. From the evidence collected by the Committee and given in considerable detail in the Report, it is clear, that some private schools are extremely unsatisfactory, and a larger number are weak and inefficient (some Local Education Authorities estimated the number of gravely defective private schools at as many as 10 per cent). The Committee wisely states that it does not consider a school as necessarily weak and inefficient if it 'fails to bring average pupils up to the standard required for admission to a grant-aided secondary school at the age of 11 or 12'. If a school has other aims, it may pursue these aims efficiently and be ultimately justified.

The Committee makes the following recommendations:—

All Private Schools containing more than five children, whether charging fees or not (including schools containing only children under the age of 5), should be compelled to register and make certain annual returns to the Local Education Authorities. All such Schools, not recognized by the Board of Education as efficient Secondary or Preparatory Schools, should be periodically inspected as to premises, and in order to see that 'efficient instruction is given in reading, writing and arithmetic, of a

scope and standard suited to the children's age and capacity'. The Committee considers that no requirements should be made regarding the qualifications of teachers in these schools. The proprietors of the schools should have the right of choosing between inspection by the Board of Education and inspection by the Local Education Authorities.

Reasons are given against setting up any special body of inspectors to deal with Private Schools, although the Report suggests that 'occasional inspectors' with special experience of private schools might well be employed, especially in co-operation with the ordinary inspectors. The Committee considers that this would involve an extra annual expenditure of between £20,000 and £30,000. If a school does not comply with the minimum requirements, it should receive six months' formal notice, after which the case would be taken before a Court of Summary Jurisdiction and the school be compulsorily closed, if the Court so order.

Except in regard to the difficult question of the Inspectorate, the main recommendations of the Committee are in agreement with those of the Fellowship memorandum. Comment on the Report is reserved until the next number of the *New Era*, when an account will be given of the proceedings of a meeting of the Private Schools which concurred with the Fellowship's memorandum. This meeting was held on May 25th to consider the Departmental Committee's Report.

**Margaret McMillan, Prophet and Pioneer.**

*By Albert Mansbridge. (Dent. 6s.)*

It is a great privilege to have been the contemporary of one of the world's educational prophets, to have met her, white-haired, it may be, and frail, but with the flashing eyes of the seer and the 'winged words' of one speaking with authority. Those who knew Margaret McMillan, pioneer of Open Air Nursery Schools, no less than those who knew her not, will gladly spend 6s. on Dr. Mansbridge's life of her, the more gladly since every copy sold is helping the work which she loved. The time had come when such an ordered record of her works and days was needed. Memories in the minds of her friends; scattered glimpses into her labours, given by her own pen; public enactments which were the fruit of her toil; all these have existed; but now we have the story of her



life told clearly, sympathetically, inspiringly, by a fellow-prophet who often worked at her side. The Nursery School is bound to become a recognized part of our country's educational plan; and it is good that coming generations should know from what small beginnings this great thing has grown. A world's sickness has checked our progress, and delayed our hope's fulfilment, and it is good that we should remember the weary struggles obscurely endured by two sisters, amid penury and the world's apathy, and repeated disappointment, before even those small beginnings were made.

A notable feature of Dr. Mansbridge's book is the chronology with which he has prefaced it. There before our eyes lies the tale of a nation's progress, from days before our corporate responsibility for the child's welfare was realized, down to our times when we know that we are the keepers of our little ones, charged not only to provide school buildings and a 'code' for them, but to secure their healthy development as 'whole' beings, to care for lungs and limbs, no less than intellectual powers; to quicken their love of beauty or their happy confidence in life, equally with their sense of duty. And much of this was due to her. Margaret McMillan was a prophet and mystic, and therefore sometimes found it difficult to co-operate with organizations composed of earth-bound mortals. She was lonely often, as prophets and mystics are, but she had that vision for lack of which peoples perish, and we thankfully acknowledge what she has been and done, and thankfully accept the book which shows her to us, as she moved in the world of things invisible, and yet loved the common things and people of this earth.

*Effie Ryle*

**Youth and Sex.** *A Psychological Study.* By Meyrick Booth. (Allen & Unwin. 5s.)

The author of this book has, in 224 pages, quoted opinions and passages from well over a hundred writers, modern and otherwise, on education, religion and morality; hence it will be seen that he has given what is in the main a symposium or compilation rather than an original document. He has moreover in a few pages treated a very wide range of controversial subjects, e.g. co-education, feminism, equal pay for men and women, Bolshevism, the family *v.* the State, Christianity as a force in the world to-day. The result, as might be expected, is scrappy and somewhat irritating to the reader. This is a pity, for the book contains a good deal that is sane, valuable, interesting and not easily found elsewhere in so accessible a form.

Mr. Booth is frankly reactionary in most of his opinions. He summarizes clearly and ably the arguments against co-education, and against equal pay for men and women, both of which subjects are evidently among his hobbies. He holds it to be a mistake to educate girls for trades and professions, such education tending to distract their attention from their true goal of marriage. The proper function of education is to accentuate and develop the male qualities of the man and the female qualities of the woman, and modern education fails conspicuously to achieve this aim.

# MARGARET McMILLAN PROPHET & PIONEER

By

Albert  
Mansbridge

"The marvellous extent of her accomplishment to her credit Mr. Mansbridge details to us very simply and well. A clever book."—*Spectator*.

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In attempting to give in five or six pages a popular summary of the tenets of Freud, Adler and Jung, Mr. Booth has failed conspicuously and misleadingly; nevertheless, the book as a whole is well worth the consideration of teachers, parents and social workers who may have scant time for reading, and a desire for help and information on the difficult subject of sex in relation to modern youth.

G. Coster

**The Sex Education of Children.** By Mary Ware Dennett. (Routledge. 3s. 6d.)

This is really an excellent book, full of sense and understanding. Everybody should read it. The author surveys the changing world, points out the futile, endangering impressions made by parents upon their children because they are themselves uncertain and warped in their own understanding of life. She shows how the basic attitude to sex education hinges upon the parents' attitude of mind and feeling regarding sex expression, which is passed on to the children whether the parent intends it or not. As parents, it is not what we do or say that exerts the fundamental influence on the children; it is the inner attitude that overrules every time.

Many will be grateful to Mary Dennett for such a sane and simple book on this often perplexing subject.

M. A. Payne

**Peggy and Peter.** By Lena Towsley. (Ivor Nicholson & Watson. 6s.)

In this book the happenings of an ordinary day in the life of Peggy and Peter are recorded in the most delightful photographs. The book will please both children and their parents, and may be useful in helping children to form good habits. For example, once a small girl has looked at the pictures her mother can suggest that she should 'put on her shoe as Peggy does' or 'pour her milk carefully like Peter'. Two of the photographs are reproduced as illustrations to an article in this issue of the *New Era*, but the necessary simplification and reduction in size does them scant justice. In reality the book forms a first-class exposition of the art of the photographer.

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# PARENTS AND CHILDREN

SUPPLEMENT TO "THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL"

JUNE 1932

## THE FIRST FIVE YEARS

HARRIET MITCHELL, B.A., R.N.

**M**OST parents are surprised when they are called educators. Yet they are educators, guiders of their children during their most plastic period. Nowadays we know that the first five years of a child's life are important out of all proportion to the later years. The education received in the first half-decade of existence will enable a child to grow up personally happy and in harmony with the community, or, on the contrary, will foster in him an outlook on life which will create personal and social difficulties from childhood to old age.

And in these all-important first five years it is the parents who are the educators. In most cases school has not yet begun to play a part, and outside the home the social life of the small child hardly exists. It is the parents who have the tremendous responsibility of helping the child to build up healthy and serviceable habits of thinking, feeling and doing.

If a child is to be mentally healthy there are basic needs which his parents must satisfy.

### Safety First

*Security* is his first need. A little child cannot stand uncertainty or caprice. He must have home affections which can be counted upon absolutely, understanding and patience that never fail.

It is seriously menacing to the mental health of little children to tell them, 'If you behave like that Mother and Daddy can't love you', or 'If you are so naughty we shall send you to boarding school.' Under such threats a child cannot achieve a healthy personality.

Again, it is a great strain on a child to be torn between loyalty and affection for one parent and loyalty and affection for the other. Yet such a situation inevitably arises when parents are incompatible and 'get at' each other through the child, or unconsciously use him as the outlet for their unsatisfied emotional lives.

### Divided Loyalty

John, aged eight, is an only child. His parents married after only a few days' courtship and almost from the first they have quarrelled constantly. Since John's birth his mother has devoted herself to him—over-protecting him and shutting him away from normal outside interests. This over-solicitude is partly a compensation for guilty feelings because he was an unwanted baby and partly an outlet for emotions not satisfied in her married life.

The mother criticizes the father for his severity with John and his lack of affection and consideration for herself, and commiserates with the boy in a very evident attempt to turn him against the father. John admires his father because 'he is big and can do things', yet is very dependent on his mother. He is in a constant state of conflict and insecurity which is giving rise at the present time to such symptoms as restless sleep, stammering, food faddiness and bad temper.

What he needs for his emotional health is less devotion from his mother and more harmony between his parents.

A child feels equally insecure (and consequently jealous and lacking in self-confidence) if there is favouritism in the home. Praising one







*'Peter poured the milk on his oatmeal very carefully'*

[Reproduced from 'Peggy and Peter,' by kind permission of Ivor Nicholson and Watson]

child unduly, nagging another, making comparisons between them, continual fault-finding, expressed disappointment, all these things are destructive, impairing a child's precious belief in himself and his courage to do his best.

### Children are Individual People

A small child's second need is *appreciation for what he himself is*. Just as much as his parents, every child is an individual personality, with his own special contribution to make to the world, his own self to express. His growing-up must not be warped or prevented by a feeling that he never lives up to what is expected of him. He is not in the world for the purpose of taking up the career Father failed to achieve for himself, but to follow out his own special talents.

If it is not clear what these talents are, there are modern standardized tests which will indicate them. Intelligent parents should have regular psychiatric examinations for their child, just as they have physical ones, so that they may know what his abilities are and how much can reasonably be expected from him.

It will then be possible to educate him in just the right way for his particular abilities.

Now we come to what is perhaps the most difficult part of the parents' task. The child must be helped to make the best of his individual powers and to grow into as intelligent and loving and able a person as he is capable of becoming. But his great happiness in life will depend upon his ability to get on with his fellows, and it is his parents' duty to give him reasonable guidance in this difficult business of adapting himself to social life.

Every parent should think out carefully what are the cases in which a child's own wishes must *necessarily* be overruled. If the parent gives this careful thought to the matter, his whole attitude to questions of obedience and habit-formation will be reasonable and will not depend upon momentary whims or moods of

his own. His prohibitions will be few and sensible, and the child will recognize their reasonableness, and find it much easier to submit to them.

There are certain things over which there can be no choice. Chief of these are health, safety and consideration for others. Obviously a small child cannot be allowed to decide when he will go to bed or to the dentist. Equally obviously he must be protected from the dangers of traffic and from play that involves unwarrantable risks to life and limb. And he must learn early not only to live but to *let live*. But in these matters the child can be taught to accept guidance willingly if it is given in a reasonable spirit.

### Tell Him, Why Not !

A young child must be controlled, directed and protected by the adults around him. But as soon as he becomes able to understand what is said to him, the reasons for the restrictions upon his impulsive behaviour should be simply and unemotionally explained to him. These reasons must be repeated over and over again. When it is necessary to forbid certain activities, the parents should say clearly *why* they are forbidding that particular thing. For instance,



'Billy, put your wagon in the basement, because it may rain to-night and the rain would make the wheels rusty and they won't run properly.'

If the parent will try always to suggest some other activity when he has to put a stop to something the child wants to do, he will make obedience a much easier matter. For example: 'We don't pound the table with a hammer, because that would spoil its good polished top, but you *can* pound nails into this odd bit of wood as much as you like,' or 'Mother's going to make a dress out of that stuff, but here is a box of pieces you may use.'

Again in our training of the child we must not take advantage of the fact that he is impressionable and easily moulded. Our business is to allow him the maximum of individual growth and development that is compatible with the demands of society. We must take care not to make parenthood the excuse for using young life selfishly.

#### Your Convenience or His Good?

As parents, most of us do far too much directing. We set up false gods of obedience to convention. We tend to build up a mental picture of how a child should behave, how he should look and what he should achieve, if he is to be a credit to ourselves. Then we put all our energies into making the child as like this picture as possible, not caring what lovely and valuable qualities we crush out in the process.

At first the little child needs much help and direction in carrying out even the most simple practices in cleanliness, dressing, picking up toys, and so on. But gradually the responsibility for such routine should be given to the child. He will enjoy the implication of being 'grown-up', and will take pleasure in his increasing abilities and his opportunities for self-reliance. He should be early encouraged to help make simple choices and decisions. 'Is this wool suit or that washing one best for playing in to-day?' 'What had we better do to keep the floor clean while we're painting at the easel this morning?'

These daily problems, simple in themselves, too usually decided by adults, provide necessary exercise for the little child in reasoning and judgment and the acceptance of responsibility. A way of life which provides numerous opportunities for such decisions is of itself a good education.

Needless to say, the giving of such opportunities should be a gradual and carefully thought out process. We do not want to give a child responsibilities which are beyond him, yet we need to guard against under-estimating what he can do.

#### Less Comfort for Parents; but——

This method of training children to make their own decisions means, it must be admitted, a less comfortable time for parents. They will have to think more, be more patient. It is so much easier authoritatively to demand a child's obedience than to explain why certain behaviour is desirable and gradually help him to the attitude of wanting to co-operate. It is much easier to forbid activities than to think of new and harmless ways of expressing them.

But it is infinitely better for the child's mental health and growth that he should learn self-direction and self-control and have practice while he is still small in weighing and balancing and in adjusting himself to social needs and to a changing world.

*[In a future issue Mrs. Mitchell will discuss other necessities for the small child's sound mental growth.]*



*Instead of just telling them not to draw on the wall, give them a blackboard*

*[Reproduced from 'Peggy and Peter']*



# FOOD FOR THE YOUNG CHILD

MARGERY ABRAHAMS

**T**HERE is no need to be disheartened by the rather high-sounding words which people use in talking about diet. The facts are quite simple, even if the names are not. There are certain things we do not yet know about food and its uses. But there are certain elements in food that have been proved to be *essential* if the child is to grow up strong and healthy.

Children must get certain very definite benefits from their meals. They must get energy enough to carry them through their very active days, and one has only to think for a moment of the ceaseless coming and going of a healthy child of five to realize what a vast amount of energy it uses. They must get heat enough to protect them against changes of temperature and to keep them comfortably warm.

It is true that clothing helps a great deal in this, but food is at the root of the matter and the cosiest clothing in the world would not keep a wax doll warm. They must get powers of resisting disease and good food is the most important protection, even from the so-called childish ailments. Over and above all these things, they must get material for healthy

growth—food that will build clean bones, straight backs and healthy teeth, good muscle, firm flesh and a clear glowing skin.

A properly balanced diet will give a child all these things: energy, warmth, resistance to disease and material for growth. But a diet that lacks any essential element will handicap a child's growth, make him more likely to pick up germs, and unless the lack is remedied it may lead to chronic ill-health.

It follows therefore that every mother should understand what foods are essential and why they are essential, so that she may make sure that her children lack nothing that she can provide.

## Foods that give Energy and Heat

The chief energy and heat-producing foods are :—

- (i) *Sugars and starches (carbohydrates)* including the sugar in honey, syrup and fruit and the starch in rice, tapioca, bread and potatoes.
- (ii) *Fats*, such as butter, margarine, dripping, suet, bacon fat, oils, and the fat in meat and nuts.



*Meat and its Substitutes*

[Reproduced by kind permission of the Boston Dispensary Food Clinic and the New England Dairy and Food Council]



- (iii) *Proteins*, found in the meaty parts of meat and fish and in milk, eggs and cheese; and to a less extent in bread, flour, oatmeal, peas, beans and lentils, which contain both protein and carbohydrates.

Fats supply rather more than twice as much energy, weight for weight, as do carbohydrates or proteins. But on the other hand they are more difficult to assimilate. Fat tends to slow down the rate at which food leaves the stomach, and care should be taken, in forming a balanced diet for children, that too large a proportion is not included.

#### Foods that give Material for Growth

The most important of these are :—

- (i) *Proteins*. These, as has been said, produce energy, but they are also most important as material for growth. Not all proteins, however, are equally useful. Those obtained from animal sources, such as milk meat, eggs and fish, are complete proteins and are more valuable for body-building than those obtained from vegetable sources, such as bread, peas, beans, lentils and nuts, which contain incomplete proteins.

This is why milk, which contains a considerable amount of animal protein, in addition to nearly all the other essentials for growth, is so important in childhood. Moreover it is a very easily digested food.

- (ii) *Mineral Salts*, such as calcium, phosphorus, iron, copper and iodine.

During the growing period calcium is especially concerned in the formation of bones and teeth, and is therefore most important in the diet of children. It is to be found largely in milk and cheese, and although present in considerable quantities in cabbage and other vegetables, much of it is lost in the water in which these are boiled. For this reason vegetables for children should either be steamed or the water in which they were boiled should be used in stews or soups. Some calcium is found in brown bread, but practically none in white.

Phosphorus is another essential salt. Enough of it is generally present in an

ordinary well-planned diet, especially in milk, eggs, fish, meat and vegetables. Although iron is present in the body only in minute quantities, it is definitely and continuously essential for healthy blood formation. We find it especially in vegetables, such as spinach, in eggs, and above all in liver. Other necessary mineral salts such as iodine, copper and manganese, are also present in minute but essential quantities in an ordinary balanced diet. If there is a deficiency of iodine in any district fish should figure frequently in children's menus.

There cannot be health and healthy growth without vitamins. With the exception of vitamin D, now to be known as Calciferol, the chemical composition of vitamins is at present unknown, and a considerable amount of research is being made into the subject.

#### The Part played by Vitamins

*Vitamin A* is particularly valuable in enabling the body to resist disease, especially diseases of the eyes, nose and lungs. It is present in liver and cod-liver oil, in whole milk, butter, eggs, tomatoes, the yellow vegetables, carrots and swedes, and green leafy vegetables, lettuce, cabbage and spinach.

*Vitamin B* which properly consists of two vitamins, is widely found in animal and vegetable foods, particularly in yeast, brown cereals and eggs. It is helpful in keeping the digestive tract in good order, and, in the East, in preventing a disease called beri-beri. All its uses are not fully known.

*Vitamin C* is present in raw fruit and vegetables. Oranges, lemons and tomatoes are particularly rich in this vitamin—hence the importance of fresh uncooked fruit and salad in a well-balanced diet. This vitamin is destroyed by heat, and also by alkalis such as bicarbonate of soda, which is sometimes used to preserve the colour when cooking greens. Tinned tomatoes can be used to supply vitamin C, since they are so rich in the vitamin that only a little is destroyed by tinning. Care must be taken that the tin is sound.

*Vitamin D* is essential if a child is to have healthy bones and sound teeth. It is to be found in cod-liver oil, milk, cream and butter.





*Dinner Out of Doors*

*[Reproduced by kind permission of the Rachael  
McMillan Nursery School, Deptford]*

It is produced in the body by exposure to sunlight or other ultra-violet rays, and as far as we know, is the only food essential which can be actually manufactured by the body. Vitamin D is progressively destroyed by being heated in the air. Unless children obtain a proper proportion of this vitamin, together with enough calcium and phosphorus, they will be likely to develop rickets.

#### **The Value of Milk**

As has already been seen, milk is essentially the food for healthy growth, and every child between the ages of two and five should have at least one pint of milk a day; one-and-a-half pints seems to be the ideal quantity. To secure a clean milk supply the milk of large urban areas is generally pasteurized before use. Pasteurization consists of raising the temperature to 145 degrees Fahrenheit, keeping it there for half-an-hour, then quickly cooling the milk. Although safer than untreated milk when kept perfectly clean, pasteurized milk collects germs more easily and therefore special care must be taken to keep it covered in order to protect it from dirt and dust. Pasteurization may destroy part of the vitamin D content. In winter therefore this deficiency should be made good with cod-liver oil and butter when possible.

#### **Other Points to be Remembered**

Children under seven should never be allowed to drink tea or coffee. Not only do these contain injurious drugs, but they are likely to be used to replace milk, thus seriously reducing the value of a day's diet. Food for young children should be easily digestible and should therefore never be fried nor contain too large a proportion of fat.

The child should be encouraged to chew and should be given a certain amount of food that cannot be swallowed unless well chewed. Chewing has two uses. It helps to develop the jaws, and it delays the food in the mouth so that it can be acted upon by the digestive juice in the saliva, before it reaches the stomach.

Food should be served attractively. Colour and a pleasant appearance make an enormous difference to the appetite and digestive powers of a child. Avoid strong flavouring and food which is too hot or too cold.

Meal times should be made as happy as possible. Always assume, quietly and without fuss, that a child will eat whatever is put before him. It is a mistake to draw attention to a new dish or to ask a child how he likes it. Never force him to eat anything, however 'good for him'. Do not allow him to get into the habit of refusing food merely as a means of tyrannizing over his elders.



# SAMPLE MENU FOR CHILDREN BETWEEN TWO AND FIVE YEARS

MEAL	FOOD	SPECIAL VALUE IN THE DIET
Breakfast 8 a.m.	One egg  Toast or rusks Butter Milk (large cup)	Protein, Vitamins A, B, D, Mineral Salts. Particularly valuable for iron. Energy-producing. Cannot be swallowed quickly. Vitamins A and D. Energy. Vitamins A, B and D. Protein. Mineral salts in excellent proportions. Energy.
9.30 a.m.	Lemon water or orange juice	Vitamin C if made with cold water.
Dinner 1 p.m.	Fish (steamed) Tomato sauce (sieved tomatoes thickened with flour)  Potatoes  Cabbage  Chocolate blancmange (cocoa, sugar, corn-flour and milk) Milk, large cup	Protein, mineral salts including iodine. Energy. Gives attractive colour to the fish. Raw or tinned tomatoes will supply some Vitamin C if not cooked too long or with bicarbonate of soda. Contains protein. Cornflour is practically deficient in this. Energy. Mineral salts and all vitamins in moderate quantities. The salts are best preserved by cooking in the skins. Energy. Roughage. Mineral salts, some of which will be lost in the water. Some Vitamin C if cooked quickly without bicarbonate of soda. Gives colour and flavour. (Milk, as above.)  As above.
Tea 5 p.m.	Bread (brown) Milk Jam, honey or Marmite, or Shredded lettuce or tomato as sandwich	As above. As above. Chiefly for calories.  Vitamin C.



## HOW TO STUDY OUR CHILDREN

MARY has fits of rage; Tommy stammers; Joan won't eat her dinner unless she is coaxed over every bite; and John's taken to boasting so, that he can't tell truth from fiction. What are we to do with Mary and Tommy and Joan and John?

In the first place we must remember that they weren't born like that. They have come to behave in that way because of circumstances. These circumstances were quite outside their own control—though they were, or should have been, in ours. The only way to change the 'bad' behaviour is to understand and change the bad circumstances that caused it.

All this is rather alarming, but it is also bracing. Of course it is much less trouble to say 'Mary's got her grandfather's temper', or 'Why am I afflicted with such a highly-strung little boy?' But most of us would rather shoulder our own responsibilities than unload them on to ancestors or Providence.

Modern parents recognize that they are educators as well as providers. In the former respect, the father is as important as the mother, and their attitude to each other is quite as important as their attitude to their children.

A number of our readers tell us that they are thinking of forming study-circles in which they mean to read about and discuss the basic needs of children and how best to meet them.

Mrs. Mitchell, the first instalment of whose article appears in this issue of *The New Era*, has reckoned that there are seven such needs: security; appreciation of individuality; reasonable guidance; help in facing reality; the learning of serviceable habits; treatment in

accordance with, not against, the child's natural interest and impulses, and encouragement for his powers of self-expression.

We have been asked to draw up schemes for such study-circles, which will ensure that all the ground is covered, and that the simpler problems are tackled first. As announced in *Outlook Tower* we are very glad to do this and also to give any help we can by answering questions and making suggestions.

Most of those who have written to us say that they will not be able to afford a paid lecturer, and are proposing to get as leader to the group one of their own number, perhaps a parent whose children are already out of the nursery, and who therefore, backed by experience, has leisure for careful reading and thought in preparation for each meeting. This seems a quite feasible plan.

Their methods of collecting a group seem to be very varied. Several write that they mean to get together some friends of their own, all of whom have children of approximately the same age. One wishes to do it in connection with his church, another as an extension of her village-institute work, while one or two mean to start in conjunction with some of the teachers from the school to which their children belong.

All of this would seem to indicate that the idea is in the air. It does not make any difference how exactly the group is formed. The important thing is that we should learn to understand our children more thoroughly so that we may help them more wisely to develop to the fullest of their powers.



### HELPFUL BOOKS

THE MIND OF THE GROWING CHILD.

*Lady Erleigh.* (Faber & Gwyer. 5s.)

A series of lectures on practical topics. Emphasis is laid on the importance of the first five years of life.

THE NURSERY YEARS. *Susan Isaacs.*

(Routledge. 6d.) Full of the most useful information. Very simply written.

THE MANAGEMENT OF YOUNG CHILDREN.

*Blatz & Bott.* (Dent. 10s. 6d.)

'Brimful of constructive thought on everyday difficulties and emergencies in the nursery.'



# Professor Paul Langevin—President of the Conference

*Professor to the Collège de France, Officer of the Legion d'Honneur*

PROFESSOR PAUL LANGEVIN was born in Paris and educated there, first at the *Ecole de Physique et de Chimie*, then at the *Ecole Normale Supérieure*, from which he graduated in 1898 as first student of his year in Physics.

In 1902, before even finishing his thesis for his Doctorate, he was appointed assistant to Professor Mascart, at the *Collège de France*, and succeeded him in the Chair of General and Experimental Physics in 1908.

He was Lecturer and Director of Studies at the *Ecole de Physique et de Chimie* from 1905 onwards, and at the death of Haller in 1925 he became its Director.

His most important work has been concerned with the Ionization and Conductibility of Gases; the theory of Electrons; the Kinetic theory; the theory of Magnetism, with which his name is particularly associated, and the theory of ultra-sound waves. This was developed during the War in an attempt to find a means of locating submarines, and it is becoming increasingly important as a technique in submarine communications and in sounding by echo.

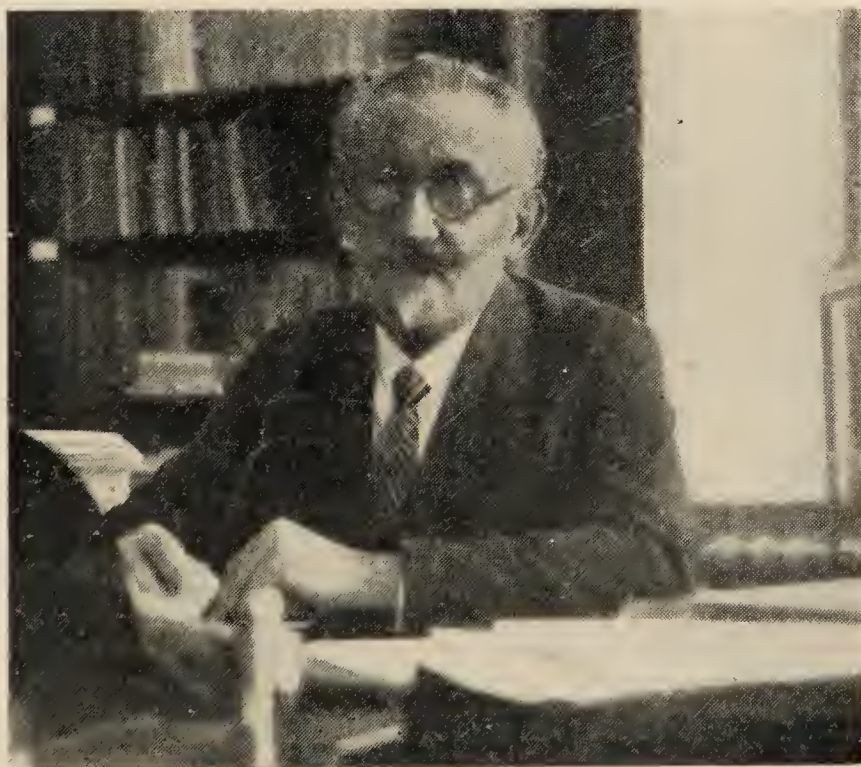
Professor Langevin is a member of many academies and scientific societies in France and abroad, and has often been sent on scientific missions, notably to the Argentine, Brazil, Germany, England,

Italy, Russia, Poland and Czecho-Slovakia.

Apart from purely scientific pursuits, Professor Langevin takes an active interest in general questions, both social and educational. An ardent pacifist, he is President or Member of many French and International groups which are working for the intellectual and moral reconciliation of the nations. (French Commission of Intellectual Co-operation, League of Nations Union, *Ligue Internationale des Combattants de la Paix*; *Comité d'Education pacifiste de la Ligue d'Enseignement*, etc., etc.) He is Vice-President of the French League of the Rights of Man, and President of the Rationalist Union.

Professor Langevin has always been keenly interested in questions of Pedagogy and general culture. He is President of the Society of Pedagogy; Honorary President of the French Group of the New Education Fellowship; President of the *Compagnons de L'Université Nouvelle*, which is working for the establishment of the *Ecole Unique* in France.

He has recently spent several months in China as member of a Mission sent out by the League of Nations to study the present organization of teaching in that country, with a view to suggesting reforms and widening the scope of Chinese education.



*Professor Langevin in his Library*



# A WORD FREQUENCY

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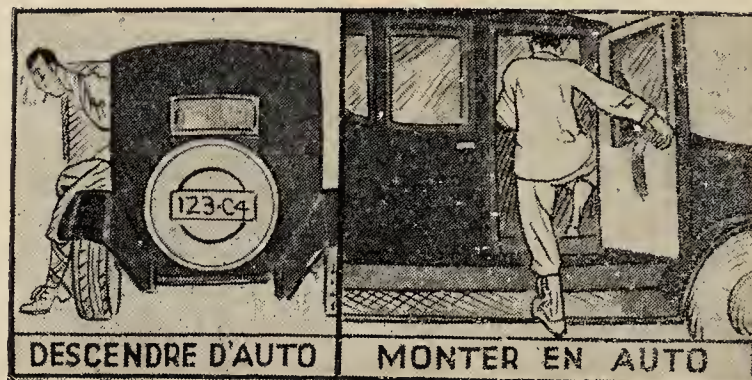
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# THE NEW ERA

## IN HOME AND SCHOOL

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### *Outlook Tower*

IN view of the fact that the Sixth World Conference of the New Education Fellowship is to be held in France at the end of this month, we think it may be useful to endeavour to present in this issue a general impression of education in France. We hope it will serve to give those who will attend the Conference a greater appreciation of the aims and goals of French education. Apart from this, it will form a valuable addition to our series on comparative education.

We are much indebted to the writers of the various articles and to our French bureau officials who have collected the material for us. In this and in every other possible way France and the French people have done all in their power to help in the organization of the Conference, and we are indebted for definite co-operation to the Ministry of Public Instruction, to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, to the French committee in Paris and the local committee in Nice, to the Mayor of Nice and to many others. We hope that the Conference will promote ever greater friendship with the French by giving us more knowledge of their difficulties and their endeavours.

France is too often misunderstood in the realm of international affairs by those who do not know enough of her very special powers and the correlative difficulties under which she labours. Perhaps the root of the matter may be that the French are innately circumspect. This is apparent in their caution in accepting certain things that would make for internationalism. A Frenchman would claim that, ever since the Revolution, France has had an international spirit; that with the Proclamation of the Rights of Man and Citizen she set out to liberate all peoples from monarchic oppression. He would

say that she has been let down time and time again because she has believed in the good faith of other nations. In the course of history she has become prudent, and it is with this very prudence that other nations now reproach her.

One of the main objects of the Fellowship's Conference is to bring together leaders of educational and social thought; for, while national traditions and cultures must play an important part in the education of each country, the conditions of the world to-day tend to break down any real degree of cultural self-sufficiency. The economic unification of the world is inevitably a prologue to its social unification. These very changes are demanding radical reforms in educational practice and philosophy, which all seem to tend in the same direction, whatever may be the national tradition of any particular country. Only in so far as educators can agree on certain fundamental principles and values will it be possible to adjust education to modern needs and to evolve through it a new society.

Teachers throughout the world are too apt to conserve the established order unquestioningly. We need teachers who will give conscience and soul to the great world-organization which science is compelling us to adopt—otherwise its very size may imperil mankind.

We are too prone to think that any theory or practice that does not conform to our own is wrong, and so because France is progressing educationally along different lines from other countries there is a tendency to belittle what she is doing in the realm of progressive education. In this issue ample proof is given that educational reconstruction is going on in France. When, at the Conference, we come to make a frank survey of educational trends I think



it will be found that France has a valuable contribution to make.

Before reviewing the new spirit that is moving in French education, it is necessary to bear in mind certain salient features of the traditional system. Education in France has been profoundly affected by the political and social struggles of the last century. The result is that, with certain exceptions, the State has obtained full control of the schools, and therefore there has not been as much elasticity and variety as is found in English education. The whole of the French school system is divided into two groups, the *Ecole d'Etat* and the *Ecoles Libres*. The latter are largely attached to religious bodies, but even in these the State inspects buildings and equipment, insists upon the principal being a fully-qualified teacher and exerts a definite control through examinations.

The central educational authority in France is known as the Ministry of Public Instruction. This is significant; it defines the sphere of usefulness of the French school system. The Anglo-Saxon parent expects the school to stand *in loco parentis*, but the French is not willing to have the teacher undertake the education of his children; he wishes to do this himself and merely expects the school to *instruct* them. Consequently the French teacher takes a view of his duties which, at least to English eyes, seems a narrow one. He, the teacher, is there to hand on to his pupils the intellectual heritage of France—its great artistic heritage is largely neglected. This is particularly so in the secondary schools which, in France as in other countries, have tended to be less modified by modern theory than have the elementary schools.

The French child during this period of instruction has to work long hours amassing vast quantities of information. Concentration on the purely academic side of education in school has produced a high academic standard of which the French are justly proud. They claim moreover that the Classics give ethical training by putting the child in touch with some of the mainsprings of world thought. Of late years, however, some French parents are beginning to question whether this academic standard is not being bought at too high a price.

French education is objective. The child is expected to submerge his own point of view, his

own emotional reactions, in the general intellectual conception of the subject that is being taught. This gives splendid training in group discipline and in logic. It leaves the emotional nature free to develop itself. The French have a facility of emotional self-expression in the ordinary matters of life. It would seem that this provides them with a natural catharsis. There are therefore perhaps fewer psychologically maladjusted people in France than in England where definite repression of the emotions from early youth is considered to be 'good form'.

In French education stress falls on the conception that the child is not an independent being, but that he is first a member of the Family and next a member of that great community—France. The ties and obligations of the Family are far more binding than in Anglo-Saxon countries. The normal family relationship is a particularly warm and united one, and we see little of the revolt of youth against the older generation which is elsewhere so patent.

The educational system in France seems to be founded on an absolutist sociological view that education is the compulsion of the social group—cultural State or dogmatic Church—on its prospective member, the child.

In France the day school plays a much more important rôle than it does in England. The out-of-school supervision is purely supervision, and little is done to use the out-of-school hours for educational purposes. The teacher is legally responsible for any accident that may happen to the child when under his care. This militates much against pupil-teacher out-of-school activities, and makes it natural that the child should receive his education, as distinct from his instruction, mainly outside the school.

France stands somewhere between England and America in the degree to which her educational system is democratic. It is more democratic than in England, for there is not the equivalent of the English Public School, with its class distinctions. But on the other hand it is not as democratic as America, where the ideal is for every child to go through the same schooling. In France there is a cleavage between elementary and secondary education, between the schools of the people and the schools of the bourgeoisie. (*Les Compagnons* are trying to break down this cleavage by the



*Ecole Unique*, a common school for all children, at least for the first five or six years of educational life, such as has been instituted for the first four years of school life in Germany since the Revolution, and which has long been in existence in Switzerland, the U.S.A., and the Dominions.)

Two important fundamental questions arise from this, and, since the practice in France, England and America is different, a careful investigation of the aims and results would be worth while.

The first is that in America, by planning the school system for the average child, the academic standards have been lamentably lowered, and there is a growing standardization throughout the nation, even though there is no central control of education. In England, the academically gifted child of poor parents can pass by scholarships from the Elementary School to the Secondary School and on to the University. But this postulates that secondary education is only for the academically minded.

The second point is the burning question of cultural versus vocational training. The modern world, it is claimed, needs less insistence upon a classical tradition and more definite scientific instruction. There is a growing demand for vocational training, and one of the most important sections of the Nice Conference will be devoted to a careful survey of the classical versus the vocational policy in education in its relation to modern needs. Surely one of the most hopeful solutions lies in giving opportunity for greater differentiation of curriculum and in the reform of school-leaving examinations.

The position of women in France is interesting. In some ways they have not as yet had the official recognition of equality which they have achieved in Nordic and Anglo-Saxon countries. And yet as a matter of practice the Frenchwoman takes her share in the work of the nation in a very much more matter-of-fact way than in other countries. In elementary education men and women are paid equal salaries and throughout the educational system there is no question of a woman's giving up her post on marriage; if a married teacher's husband is transferred for professional purposes from one part of France to another, the woman teacher gets the first vacancy that occurs in her particular type of school in the district to which

her husband has been removed. Moreover, she gets generous allowances and leave of absence for childbearing. This would appear to be a very great advance on the usual practice in England, for surely the married woman, wife and mother, has much to give in education that the unmarried woman cannot give.

In regard to co-education, the position in France is somewhat peculiar. No co-educational boarding-school is allowed by law, and co-education in the day-schools—whether elementary or secondary—is not really approved, though nursery schools are of course mixed. In country districts mixed schools are sometimes found, but this is only because the attendance is so small. As soon as there is a sufficient number of pupils to warrant it, the boys and girls are sorted out and taught separately, though they are brought together again in the top forms of some of the *Lycées* and in the university. The French child has, however a great deal of companionship with members of the other sex in connection with his home activities.

Again, the French disciplinary régime is much more progressive than the English, for corporal punishment is illegal in France and this law is firmly upheld by French parents.

The religious struggle has resulted in a spirit of positivism in education which has excluded the religious element from the schools, and an attempt has been made to replace this by moral instruction. One can understand that in a country where one form of the Christian faith is dominant, this may be necessary. But the general trend to-day is to free religion from sectarianism and to make it a philosophy of everyday life. We claim that such a philosophy should be an integral part of education. As has already been said, pure intellect is a cold and analytical tool. A dynamic spiritual religion should give a greater comprehension of the universality of life, of the one-ness of mankind. The crying need of the day is for a swifter ethical evolution so that man may use the machinery which science has put at his disposal for constructive instead of destructive purposes. We need a wider acceptance of the philosophy of Holism. We need a growing number of men and women who are able to be good world citizens as well as good national citizens. We need a growing number of human beings in



whom the humanistic tendencies are developed and who have the power to sense the basic unity of life and to apply it to matters political, economic, social and international.

Demolin's book, *To What is Anglo-Saxon Superiority Due?*, which appeared in 1898, created a great stir in France and was instrumental in bringing a new type of school into existence. The best-known of such schools is the *Ecole des Roches*. M. Bertier is an educational pioneer and he has proved that it is possible to unite the high academic standard required by the French educational authorities with a larger life in school, which gives room for the arts, self-government, games and other features of the new education. Dr. Montessori and Dr. Decroly have also much influenced French education, particularly in the schools for younger children. M. Cousinet, a French general inspector of schools, has introduced the Cousinet method which is an attempt to break up the rigidity of class-teaching. *Les Compagnons, les Co-opératives Scolaires, l'Imprimerie à l'Ecole*, all of which are described in this issue, are attempts to introduce more practical activity into the schools to make the education system of France more democratic and thus to affect French society directly.

It must be admitted, however, that these are still individual tentatives and not as yet a big united movement. New education is not yet recognized in France as something more than a technique or an experiment in method. It is not yet realized there as a new approach to human nature and a powerful new instrument for social reconstruction.

The *Ecoles Maternelles* have been in existence in France for a number of years. Much is claimed for them; and the verdict of dispassionate observers is that really good work is being done in them. They have been able to break away from tradition and to introduce more of the methods

of new education than has been possible in the traditional schools. There has recently been instituted a department for technical training at the Ministry of Public Instruction. This again, being a new departure, is unshackled by tradition and promises to embody many elements of progressive education in its administration.

The *Eclaireurs*, or Boy Scouts, are playing a very important part by giving care to the physical, manual and social development of the child which has been lacking in the past.

A real attempt is being made in France to foster the international spirit. Eighty thousand teachers, representing two-thirds of the teachers of France, belong to the Syndicate of Teachers. This Syndicate is attached to the International Labour Movement at Geneva which is international and pacific in its outlook. It is from France that the initiative came for founding a World Federation of Secondary School Teachers, in which M. Beltette, an old friend of the Fellowship, played a leading part. From France also has come the initiative in forming a Federation of the Elementary School Teachers' Associations. The French teachers' associations are doing much to promote international exchanges of teachers and school journeys, to revise text-books and to do all that can be done to foster a better spirit between countries. The International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations has its headquarters in Paris.

As regards the new education, there are two movements working actively to promote a newer spirit in education. One is a national movement, of limited but invaluable scope, *La Nouvelle Education*; the other, our own Fellowship, *La Ligue Internationale pour L'Education Nouvelle*, with its headquarters in Paris. The activities of both these movements are described in this issue.



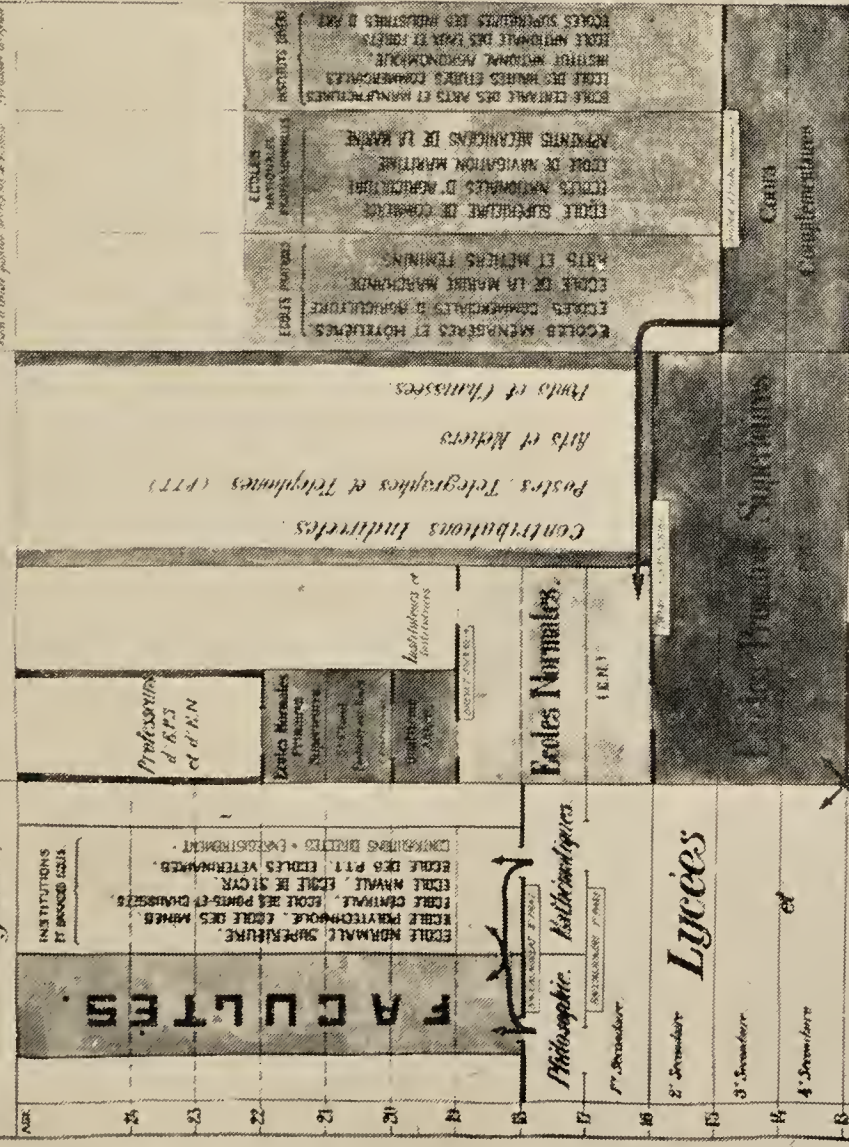
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# A Few Words on French Education

CLOUDESLEY BRERETON

I HAVE been asked to say a few words on school education in France, in view of the approaching Conference at Nice. As one of the expeditionary force that invaded Calais in 1931, I am only too pleased to comply.

There are two distinct influences at work in French education, one of which predominates in the elementary schools and the other in the secondary.

French elementary education, apart from the church schools, is essentially democratic. It was dreamed of by Danton and Condorcet in the Revolutionary period, but realized only under the Third Republic by such enthusiasts as Jules Ferry and Ferdinand Buisson—the latter of whom is happily still with us. In little over fifty years a complete system of free, compulsory, secular education has been developed, with a flourishing superstructure of higher primary schools and the necessary complement of training colleges and super training colleges to teach training college professors how to teach!

This has been rendered possible largely by the comparative freedom of primary education from existing scholastic traditions, except as regards method. Probably its most striking development, considering how late a discovery the child has been in French education, is the growth of the nursery school, a much older institution in France than in any other country. But though largely free from ties of tradition, there is a strong pull towards conformity and standardization, as is bound to happen with a highly-centralized body. This is less obvious at the present time, since the Director of primary education is himself a keen believer in private initiative and experiment.

French secondary education, on the other hand, is essentially a mirror of middle-class traditions. The cultural standard attained by its pupils is probably the highest in the world. If its connection with elementary education has been until recently rather a matter of juxtaposition than of combination, its connection with the University has always been very close, in some cases probably too close. In France the secondary school (*lycée*) has been the normal

stepping-stone for the teacher who aspires to a university post. Hence a tendency to set the standard very high, to regard the pupil as an *homunculus* rather than as an adolescent. I used to say that in England the masters were over-worked and the pupils had a comparatively easy time whereas in France the reverse was true. But teachers' hours have increased of late in France, and homework has been drastically cut.

As a conservative institution the secondary school has naturally been the stronghold of classics or rather of Latin. In 1902 a breach was made to the profit of modern languages. But the supporters of compulsory Latin have never disarmed, and the successive attacks they have made culminated in 1923 in its re-imposition. In 1924 an alternative modern course was re-established, but whether a child takes Latin or modern languages, his curriculum in other subjects is the same.

The strong point of the French secondary school, or rather its glory, is the wonderful teaching of the mother tongue, which is made the centre of the curriculum. Mathematics are extremely well taught, and so are modern languages in many schools. The French modern language teacher has not only to pass high examinations but also to spend a considerable period abroad. Other subjects are well taught but the course is too encyclopædic. The year of philosophy at the end of the school career comes just at the time when the young are demanding to think for themselves. It enables a pupil to get some idea of the meaning of life and society, and safeguards him from becoming the slave of catchwords. Of course, when half-taught it is as uninspiring as an imperfectly apprehended catechism.

Methods employed in the secondary school affect methods in the primary, and here again the mother tongue is well taught and arithmetic practised as a training in reasoning; it is known as *calcul raisonné*. The much abused 'moral teaching' is distinctly effective in the hands of many teachers. When intelligently taught it is the '*classe de philosophie à douze ans*'. The weak spot of the French elementary school is the low



leaving age (many leave at 12) and the indifferent attendance in many rural schools, especially in the pastoral and fruit-growing districts.

The higher primary schools are a vigorous offshoot of the ordinary elementary school. They tend to give their pupils a vocational bias. In many cases they compete directly with the small *collège*, especially as they charge no fees. This is all to the good, and in some cases a compromise has been made by bringing the two under one roof.

Evidently one of the main problems of French education is how to bring closer together the elementary and secondary school without impairing the strong points of either. Something has been done in this way recently by increasing the number of state scholarships tenable at the secondary school. But the two systems still resemble too much the slow flowing Saône and the fast flowing Rhône, which even after the junction preserve their own current and their own colouring. Happily the present energetic head of French education is fully alive to the need for multiplying the points of contact and union between the two.

Of private schools I can say little, as the only ones I know are the École des Roches and the Collège de Normandie, where a successful attempt is being made to incorporate some of the best features of the English public school with the principles of New Education.

One word on girls' education. Whether in the higher primary school or the large *lycée* the standard reached is very high. Unfortunately the tendency to approximate the girls' curriculum to the boys' has been only too successful, especially in the *lycées*. This seems to me, to judge by my English experiences, more or less

of a mistake. Home interests and the domestic arts get crowded out. (A Frenchman may retort that they can be learnt at home, but where can the child find time for it?) But my chief objection is that there are certain years in a girl's life when she should not be worked so hard as a boy.

To sum up, French education is strong on the logical and the æsthetic side, especially as regards its secondary schools which, from this point of view, I believe to be the best in Europe. Moral education, except in the elementary school, is largely regarded as the prerogative of the home, though it enters prominently into the course in Philosophy. The cutting down of homework, if effective, should give more time for exercises and sports in the open air. As for the teachers, they are well-equipped, especially the secondary teachers who—owing to the close connection with the University—are certainly in their intellectual attainments second to none.

In spite, however, of great strides made in the provision of nursery schools, and the conversion of the *classes enfantines* in the *lycées* into real kindergartens, I doubt whether the doctrines in vogue in these classes have sufficiently penetrated into the classes above; that is to say, whether enough is left to the initiative of the child. Independent work by the child, or even individual instruction, is not sufficiently common. The shades of the examination prison-house descend too early. I am old-fashioned enough to believe in examinations as a means of helping the pupil to codify and mobilize his knowledge, but examinations, if good servants, are bad masters. In fact, they are the worst of masters if allowed to curb unduly the child's efforts at self-realization.

## Teachers and International Co-operation

G. LAPIERRE

BY the time the Nice Conference opens, two important conferences will have been held to consider the part that education can play in that work of moral disarmament which the Geneva Conference considers to be at least as important as material disarmament.

The International Conference on the Teaching of History is to take place at The Hague,

attended by representatives of the great national and international organizations of historians and educationists and by pacifists.

In Luxemburg, the International Federation of Teachers' Associations will have heard the opinions of delegates from 650,000 European teachers belonging to twenty nations, on this same question of history teaching.



If I add that the Geneva Conference has formed within itself a Committee of Moral Disarmament, and that in the proposals submitted to this Committee at the present time by the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation there is a very explicit reference to the active co-operation they are counting on from teachers, one can judge of the importance that is attached by modern thinkers to education directed towards the cause of international understanding.

Is moral disarmament to precede and condition material disarmament, or is it to be its corollary? This would matter very little if only nations, their governments and educationists were persuaded of the urgent necessity of both aspects and would set about their realization single-mindedly.

For teachers, moral disarmament lies in protecting the minds of children and of the masses from the suspicions and hatreds that exist between peoples, and in making every effort for mutual understanding; in an exact recognition of the diversity of national mentality; in a sense of international solidarity with regard to an increasing number of problems and a will to work for its promotion.

Considered in this light, moral disarmament signifies security—not the artificial security which rests on force of arms and the fear that they inspire, but a security born of mutual confidence which calls logically for material disarmament. This faith in moral forces, this vision of human unity haunts the minds and uplifts the hearts of all true educationists.

Doubtless, before the War, teachers were made, in every country, the propagandists of national patriotism. Doubtless the desire to fortify national sentiment in every nation caused the national educational régime of those days to suppress all facts which bore an international interpretation—which epitomized the progressive aspirations of humanity towards spiritual unity. Doubtless also these national suspicions were reinforced by the hatred born of the War, and produced the most tendentious misrepresentations of the causes and course of this world conflict. But ever since 1919 teachers have understood the great pacific duty which awaited them.

'Burn the works of hatred' said Anatole France to the French teachers.

'Direct your teaching towards the reconciliation of the nations' said Article 148 of the Constitution of Weimar to the German teachers.

In reply to the appeal of Anatole France, the National Syndicate of French Teachers, which numbers 80,000 members, decided to lead a concerted movement against bellicose text books. They adjured their members to use the prerogatives conferred upon them by teaching regulations.\*

The Syndicate held a Conference at Strasbourg in 1926, at which the following resolution was voted :

(1) In all circumstances and to a degree conformable with the intellectual development of their pupils, teachers will take pains to make the children understand that they have a duty to perform, not only towards their family and country but also towards all mankind. They will show the children that the various nations are increasingly interdependent; they will show them particularly that civilization is the common work of all peoples, including those who have come off worst at the hand of history. They will give them, along with a sense of this unity, a desire to maintain and strengthen it.

(2) They will avoid, in their teaching, any word which might injure international understanding and the desire for peace.

(3) They will not delay in getting banned from the Departmental lists all the textbooks of a warlike spirit, which have been the outcrop of the War in France as in all belligerent countries, and whose use in class, however restricted, might injure the conscience of the child and the cause of peace.

At the pedagogic conference held during the autumn of 1926-1927, it was proposed to ban twenty-six textbooks. Some of these were definitely removed from the departmental lists and others were greatly modified by their authors, so that they might be reinscribed. A detailed account of this campaign of expurgation will be found in the report drawn up

\* (a) The textbooks in use in the National Schools should first be inscribed on a departmental list.

(b) The Teachers who meet yearly in conference in each Canton can propose additions and erasures in this list.

(c) A departmental commission composed of representatives from the administration and from the teachers themselves pronounces upon the proposed modifications.



in 1932 by the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation. (*The Revision of School textbooks containing passages detrimental to the mutual understanding of Peoples*, pp. 163-171.)

Alongside of this campaign, the National Syndicate of Teachers entered upon a series of conferences with the Deutscher Lehrerverein (General Association of German Teachers) with the aim of co-ordinating the efforts of teachers in these two countries. When first the delegates of the two nations met in Amsterdam in 1926, they conceived the idea of an International Federation of Teachers' Associations with the twofold aim of pedagogic collaboration and the co-operation of teachers in the cause of peace.

The I.F.T.A., constituted finally after two conferences (Paris, Sept. 1926, and London, April 1927), has gradually absorbed the greater number of teachers' associations in Europe. Its membership up to date comprises:

	Members
Germany, Deutscher Lehrerverein ... ..	150,000
Austria, Sektion Lehrerschaft im Verbande der Angestellten der Stadt Wien ... ..	4,740
Bulgaria, Bulgarski Outchitelksi Saius ... ..	11,000
Denmark, Danmarks Laererforening ... ..	12,700
Spain, Asociacion Nacional del Magisterio Primario ... ..	17,000
Estonia, Eesti Opetajate Liit ... ..	3,800
France, Syndicat National des Instituteurs ... ..	80,000
Great Britain: England, National Union of Teachers ... ..	141,000
Scotland, Educational Institute of Scotland ... ..	24,000
Holland, Bond van Nederlandsche Onderwijzers ... ..	7,600
Nederlandsche Onderwijzers Genootschap ... ..	5,800
Dutch East Indies, Nederlandsch-Indisch Onderwijzers Genootschap ... ..	2,000
Hungary, Magyarorszagi Tanitoeegysuletek Orszagos Szoe- vetsége ... ..	9,000
Latvia, Latvijas Scolotaju Savieniba ... ..	3,000
Lithuania, Lietuvos Profesine Mokytoju Sajunga ... ..	1,000
Luxemburg, Fédération des Instituteurs ... ..	500
Norway, Norges Laererlag ... ..	7,500
Poland, Związek Polskiego Nauczycielstwa ... ..	41,000
Wzajemna Pomoc Ukrainskoho Uczyelstwa ... ..	3,200
Roumania, Asociatia Generala a Invatatorilor din Romania ... ..	40,000
Sweden, Sveriges Folkskollærerförbund ... ..	5,400
Sveriges Ahlmänna Folkskollærerförörening ... ..	18,500
German Switzerland, Schweizerischer Lehrerverein ... ..	10,000
French Switzerland, Société Pédagogique de la Suisse Romande ... ..	3,000
Czechoslovakia, Svaz Ucitelstva Ceskoslovenskeho, Deut- scher Lehrerbund im Tschechoslovakischen Staate ... ..	13,000
Jugoslavia, Yougoslovensko Ucitelsko Udruzenje ... ..	15,000
Total Members ... ..	655,840

The I.F.T.A. has so far held four congresses:  
*Congress of Berlin*, 1928.

- 1. The religion question and the school.
- 2. The problem of the school and the social position of the parents.

*Congress of Bellinzona*, 1929.

- 1. Teacher training.
- 2. The relation between salaries and the cost of living.

*Congress of Prague*, 1930.

- 1. Bi-lingualism.
- 2. Teaching and the understanding of international solidarity.

*Congress of Stockholm*, 1931.

- 1. Compulsory continuation schools.
- 2. Compulsory military service.

On the agenda of the *Congress of Luxemburg*, 1932, are:

- 1. The international teaching of history.
- 2. The problem of abnormal children.

These congresses have been supplemented by numerous journeys and exchanges organized for teachers and students from training colleges in France, Germany, Austria, Czechoslovakia, and Switzerland.

To these one must add exchanges of individual children in France and Germany, arranged by the Franco-German Committee of inter-school exchanges; the course organized in Paris each year for a group of Swedish teachers; the facilities afforded to all teachers for seeing something of the schools in other lands; efforts on the part of the Secretariat to smooth out international misunderstandings (conflict between the Bulgarian and Yugoslav teachers; complaints from Polish-Ukrainian teachers); the organization of an International University Club; and the participation of delegates of the I.F.T.A. on Committees of Experts of the League of Nations.

While engaged in these many activities of a professional nature, French teachers have also been preoccupied with the problem of peace in its social aspects. The trades-union nature of their organization, their adhesion to the programme of the General Federation of Labour, makes it natural that they should make efforts for peace both in child and in adult education.

Such education has a ready reply for those who, intent upon the political and social crisis in which the world is floundering, believe no longer in the sovereign power of moral forces.

French teachers do not think that pacifist education is alone sufficient to create conditions for world peace. But if they fight shy of the too optimistic formula 'Peace through the School', they remain convinced that there can be no material disarmament without moral disarmament, and that there can be no peace without collaboration with the School.



# The Pedagogic Significance of Binet's Work

HENRI PIÉRON

FRENCH psychology has always been practical rather than theoretical in its aims. It has always worked in close association with psychiatry and pedagogy and it is therefore not surprising that one of its major efforts has been an attempt to determine precisely, by means of tests, the intellectual level in abnormal and backward children.

In the last years of the nineteenth century, Ed. Toulouse and A. Binet set out to render psychological examination a more objective and scientific procedure.

The former, an alienist, was investigating the problem of genius, which the man-in-the-street, like Lombroso, has always considered to be akin to madness. He attempted to make a complete analysis, physical and mental, of scholars, writers and artists, such as Poincaré, Zola and Dalou.\*

He realized the shortcomings of the usual psychological methods and bent his energies upon making them both more definite and more complete. In this work he called upon the collaboration of N. Vaschide and myself. In 1904 we published the first edition of our *Technique of Experimental Psychology*, which contains a number of intelligence tests, fully elaborated, and which also lays down the practical aim of our researches. 'At last', we said, 'it will be possible to define, more or less precisely, the *normal*, from the psychological point of view, and to draw a clearer line between the various types of abnormality—madness, mental defectiveness and genius.'

Moreover, 'in view of the fact that technical training can do much towards developing existing faculties, one will be able to diagnose

from a certain association of mental characteristics the beginnings of what might scientifically be termed *vocation*, or at any rate natural aptitude, although the person who possesses such aptitude may not be conscious of it. Thus instruction will be accommodated to individual needs, according to scientifically determined rules, and will develop the valuable potentialities of the child in a rational manner. Above all, individuals will be able to be graded according to their aptitudes with far more certainty than

under the present methods — superficial examinations, competitions or chance. In this way psychology will soon be able to claim that it has its social uses in solving concrete problems.'

That was written almost thirty years ago, and ever since then Ed. Toulouse, though he is pre-eminently a psy-

chiatrist, and I, though pre-eminently a psychophysiologist, have each in our way worked steadily to develop applied psychology, especially from the angle of furthering educational method and establishing vocational training on a rational basis.

But I am here concerned, not with describing these developments but with emphasizing the importance of Binet's work.

Binet, though not a professional psychiatrist, had been drawn towards psychology by the fame of Charcot, whose courses he followed at *la Salpêtrière*. One of his first books, written in collaboration with Féré, dealt with changes in personality, and it seemed likely that he would follow a path similar to that of Pierre Janet. But he was attracted by the work of the physiologist Beaunis at the Psychological Laboratory of the Sorbonne, founded by Th. Ribot's friend, Liard, in 1889, and of which Binet himself was soon to become the Head. Here he was influenced by the experimental methods that Wundt was

*Professor Piéron claims that the extraordinary popularity of the Binet-Simon Intelligence Tests has caused the general public to underrate Binet's outstanding merit as a psychologist.*

*This apparently paradoxical statement is justified in this article.*

\* In 1896 appeared the first volume devoted to Emile Zola—'The Medico-Psychological Enquiry into the Relation between Intellectual Superiority and Neuropathy'.



applying to psychology. In 1899 I myself began to study these methods under his direction at the Laboratory where, upon Binet's premature death twelve years later, I was appointed Head.

But, bent upon investigating individual analysis more thoroughly and making it more direct and searching, Binet discarded the techniques of a physiologist, with their cumbersome apparatus, and gave more and more time to precise and simple assessments—in fact, to tests.

Like Toulouse, he investigated the problem of genius, especially in connection with the playwright François Curel and the young painter, Tadé Styka. He undertook with Th. Simon, his faithful collaborator, a study of madness, in an effort to draw up a scientific classification of its various forms. But his chief concern was with children. He set up a small experimental laboratory in a school in the *rue Grange aux Belles*, and threw all his energies into bringing psychological discoveries to bear upon the improvement of teaching methods.

Binet succeeded in working out a scale of intelligence in collaboration with Th. Simon, and the renown with which it has met has exerted a far-reaching influence.

It is therefore worth recalling the stages by which he arrived at this scale. His work lies directly in the French tradition with its search for precise methods of psychological examination.

Binet has a definitely philosophic bent, as may be seen in his book on the soul and the body. He was thus always anxious to determine the relationship between the physical and the mental. That is how he came to direct certain of Th. Simon's researches towards making careful skull measurements, so as to determine the relation between the size of the skull and the intelligence. But if the technique of cranial measurement could be perfected fairly easily, that of the measuring of intelligence continued to be unsatisfactory.

This formed the starting point for a piece of work that covered ten years. Th. Simon's medical thesis on Craniometry dates from 1900, and the first draft of the intelligence scale from 1905.

In Volume XI of *L'Année Psychologique* Binet criticizes rather sternly a study of Biervliet

which pretended to 'measure' intelligence by means of sensory tests. Binet had gained his experience by examining and questioning many children, both from the institute for defectives at Vaucluse and from the Paris schools, in his efforts to realize psychological types and levels. He was thus able to affirm that 'the psychology of the individual must be based upon the study of the higher processes'.

In the same volume he and Th. Simon described the 'new methods of diagnosing the mental levels of the abnormal'. He put forward what he called 'a metric scale of intelligence' as a psychological method, to be used alongside of the medical method—founded upon an investigation of physio-pathological symptoms—and the pedagogic method, which establishes backwardness by gauging the actual amount of knowledge of one sort or another that has been acquired. The psychological method does not permit of measurement so much as of classification according to level—hence the word 'scale'.

'This scale', to quote again from the early essay, 'does not, properly speaking, enable us to *measure* intelligence, for one cannot measure intellectual qualities as one can lengths. One cannot, as it were, align them but one can make a hierarchy of various sorts of intelligence, and for all practical purposes such a classification comes to the same thing as measurement.'

A series of thirty tests was drawn up and numbered. These were made diverse enough to cover a wide field and simple enough to allow of rapid assessment so as to avoid fatigue and make the determination of the level of intelligence practical.

The guiding principle was to call forth the children's power of judgment, but it was obviously necessary to use tests of another type, particularly in dealing with young children, from three to seven years old, who have as yet little power of judgment.

But their chief concern of all was to test only natural capabilities by avoiding any examination of knowledge that the children had been taught or had acquired and by considering the child as 'completely uninstructed'. Binet and Simon even went so far as to add 'we really feel that we have succeeded completely in eliminating any test of acquired knowledge in the children'. In



reality this optimism was not entirely justified because, though knowledge of an exclusively bookish order was eliminated, yet such knowledge as is acquired at home and among friends counted for much. At the present moment the psychologists of the Soviet quote Binet's scale as a typical example of the dishonesty of bourgeois scientists. They say that the scale pretends to test intelligence but really tests the level of social culture, in order to favour the children of the privileged classes under cloak of submitting them to an objective and impartial test.

This reproach does a terrible injustice to Binet, who was so single-minded, so anxious to preserve justice and accuracy, as may be seen from his tentative and constant efforts for perfection, and who has always established his norms precisely from the children of the working classes. In reality we know that it is fruitless to attempt to gauge individual capacity independently of the influence of the child's surroundings, of its social culture, which strongly influence this capacity. Yet it is possible to devote a smaller place to items of knowledge, such as the value of money, utilized by the scale. Even if Binet did not, at the first attempt, achieve his aim as fully as he had thought, he did envisage it clearly and precisely.

Already in this first edition of the scale he indicated roughly the approximate level that normal children (i.e. those in each class who were of exactly average age) should reach in the various tests; e.g. at seven a normal child remembers three phrases out of eight given to him, at nine four, and at eleven five.

The establishment of this scale—with certain modifications which its use revealed to be necessary—was systematically pursued in the following years until, in 1908, it was published in its final form in Volume 14 of *L'Année Psychologique*. It was this article which brought Binet universal renown.

This tested instrument which Binet and Simon forged was tried out everywhere. Its diagnostic value and the ease with which it could be used were shinningly apparent. It was adapted in all sorts of ways and in all languages—to-day it has even its equivalent in Chinese.

By this time, official notice had been taken in France of the problem of educating children of

arrested development. Binet was asked to take part in the commission which was set up and he was able to propose to them a sure and objective means of detecting such cases. He managed to achieve the creation of special schools (two at Bordeaux, thanks to Thamin, and five in the Department of the Seine, thanks to the education officer, Bédorez), and he set about evolving suitable methods for the education of such children.

Unfortunately, the movement which he set on foot was not given free rein and it is only now coming into its own. Besides this his exact method of detecting mental deficiency was not put into practice.

There is no doubt that the scale has made it possible to determine the mental level of children of a given milieu just as precisely as modern medicine has enabled us to gauge their physical development. It is an exact method of detecting deficiency and also precocity, but, as is well known, it has been applied to more ambitious tasks, e.g. to determining intelligence even amongst adults. Moreover Stern's ingenious idea of intelligence quotients has given rise to misinterpretations, such as that which confuses genius with precocity.

Excessive simplification, which certainly contributed to the success of Binet's work, has also to some extent compromised it.

Binet did not live long enough to complete his work, to adapt and correct it, to refit it for new tasks.

But if one follows his thought and the line of his work in the course of his latter years, one realizes that he himself was much greater than the instrument for which the ordinary public have praised him to the point of identifying him with it—till, in fact, they have reduced him to the stature of a measuring-rod for backward children!

In reality Binet envisaged in their entirety the psychological problems of education, he introduced into the schoolroom the spirit of objective research, he was the true founder of experimental pedagogy in which a determination of standards of development is only one of the lesser tasks.

In the basic memorandum of 1908, *Le Développement de l'Intelligence chez les Enfants*, occurs the following passage: 'We have



constantly viewed the field from the pedagogic point of view, from that of normal as well as pathological pedagogy. For the last few years we have sought to collect all the material which could throw light on the intellectual and moral characteristics of children; this is neither the least important nor the least difficult duty of the pedagogue. We set ourselves the following programme: (1) To seek to discover the law of the intellectual development of children and to evolve a method which would allow us to find a comparative ratio of their intelligence; (2) To study the diversity of their intellectual aptitudes.'

A concrete investigation of types had always attracted the artist as well as the scholar in Binet. The admirable analysis of his daughters in his *Etudes Experimentales de l'Intelligence* formed the starting-point of the Würzburg method of research, so-called because it was highly elaborated in this university. It led him to a profound conception of thought and its mechanisms—of thought regarded as an adapting and directing force, as critic and controller; and the study of the distorted minds of imbeciles showed him the part played by a lack of harmony between the inventive capacity and the corrective capacity.

In the researches upon the intelligence of the imbecile and the mad, published in 1909 in the XVth volume of *L'Année Psychologique*, we are concerned with something much greater than the elementary proceedings of a metric scale. But we are still in the objective realm. Binet insisted upon the importance—especially to pedagogy—of what he calls a 'révolution', the replacement of introspective psychology by a psychology which is really 'the science of action'.

When one envisages the origins of American behaviourism, the part played by French psychology in the genesis of resolutely objective methods is entirely under-estimated: since 1908,

the objective conception of psychology was maintained and more or less perfected by Binet, as we have just seen, by Pierre Janet, in the sphere of pathology, and by myself, uniting the study of animals and man.

Binet was able only to indicate his thought; there is no doubt that he would have developed it in this direction, if he had been given time. Sketching out his programme, he said in 1908 that he hoped to have the time and the strength to carry it through, whereas he had then only three years more of life ahead of him. He already saw new problems outlining themselves, struck as he was by the originality of the mentality of childhood. The work of Piaget has, since then, fully revealed this originality. One might say that Piaget's work is linked to that of Binet, not to the Binet who is characterized by an automatic use of a standard instrument which enables one to arrive at an abstract quotient, but to the Binet who was a penetrating psychologist, brooding over childhood with sympathetic curiosity in order to portray faithfully all the complexity of its characteristics.

'The child', we read, 'differs from the adult not only in the degree and quantity, but in the very form of his intelligence. We do not yet know this form. In our present experiments we have only glimpsed it.'

And Binet concerned himself with the shortcomings of teaching programmes, so ill-adapted to the mental receptivity of the child. He was anxious to modify them, to suit them to the various stages of development, until such time as it might be possible to make them supple enough to meet the needs of each individual child and the characteristics of the mentality of childhood.

Binet in his attempts to penetrate objectively and precisely the psychology of the child, and in his anxiety through such penetration, to improve pedagogic method, holds a high place in the great movement of new education.



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# Nursery Schools

Mlle BARDOT

THE nursery school is already a venerable institution in France. Its first beginnings date back a hundred years, and in 1881 it was given legal status and its function was defined. According to this early definition the nursery school should be 'an establishment in which children of both sexes receive in common the ministrations necessary to their physical, moral and intellectual development'. Thus it may be seen that the nursery school is concerned with the earliest care of the child. It guides his first steps, and trains him in matters which, in a more peaceful and leisured age, were considered to be the business of the mother and of the family in general.

Children are admitted at two years old. Compulsory education begins with the seventh year, when they pass out of the nursery schools into the ordinary current of school education.

Thus the Nursery Schools attempt to base their activities on the education carried on within the family. Boys and girls are brought up together like brothers and sisters, and as has been seen the school sets out to *minister* to the children.

The teachers observe the child and respect his unfolding powers; the health of the child is subject to constant vigilance. There are very strict regulations concerning his admission to the school. His daily health is carefully scrutinized and great pains are taken to minimize all risks of infection. The details of his

personal hygiene and the cleanliness of the school buildings are given constant attention. All mistresses in the nursery schools receive a course in child welfare during their training, and the inspectors are obliged to have a thorough knowledge of hygiene and physiology.

The same vigilance is apparent in the excellent instructions given to architects concerning the construction and fitting out of nursery schools, especially the wash-rooms, rest-rooms, cloak-rooms and furniture. We are still obliged to put up with a good many old schools, but the new buildings are of a very high order and many of them surpass the standards officially laid down.

Many people have put their heads together to draw up the regulations now in force—inspectors, teachers and doctors. There is now an attempt to incorporate in them still further sanitary improvements and an extended system of health reports. It is considered that the medical inspection is still not rigorous enough. There is also a movement to increase the number of open-air schools. Those which do exist have shown clearly the benefits of park and garden, and it is suggested that the nursery schools of the future should be built in surroundings such as these.

The nursery school even as it exists at present brings incalculable benefit to the health of the children. They learn good health habits from the regularity with which they are washed, fed and put to rest, and this, with the free



*Nature itself delights the child and teaches him much*



play and supervised exercises that they all take part in, forms an excellent physical education. The programmes of 1908 recommend both quiet and active play, with and without toys, such as will develop the child's skill, accuracy, quickness, suppleness and strength. Rounds, songs, marching and dancing are grouped under this heading, and also table-games that require skill, and handicrafts. Singing, gymnastics, and work with the hands all demand concentrated attention and understanding, and thus form a beginning in the intellectual education of the child.

In 1921 the word 'programme' was banished from the nursery school vocabulary. We now talk about 'the daily activities of the child'. At the same time a list of exercises was drawn up covering six paragraphs, four of which are devoted to intellectual work, graded according to the development of the child's intelligence. There are exercises of the senses, of speech and observation. The first paragraph is a rather brief list of physical exercises, and another prescribes the formation of good habits through practice rather than through tiresome precept.

The daily activities of the child are chiefly concerned with furthering a natural development of the intelligence. Formerly an attempt was made to devote two regular periods of twenty minutes each to mental work every morning, and to limit the maximum achievements at each age, so as to prevent any ambition on the part of the teacher to teach the children to read before they reached the age of regular schooling.

But the sense-training given in a nursery school sharpens the children's powers of observation, and when they are left

free to choose their own material, they turn naturally to pictures and words and wish of their own accord to draw, write and read. The teacher must handle this impulse very wisely. It seems to be a fatal corollary to the exciting life of the city. The natural exuberance of the children is hampered by the narrowness of their homes and the bareness of our playgrounds. How can this fail to over-excite their minds and force them to find outlet in book and pencil?

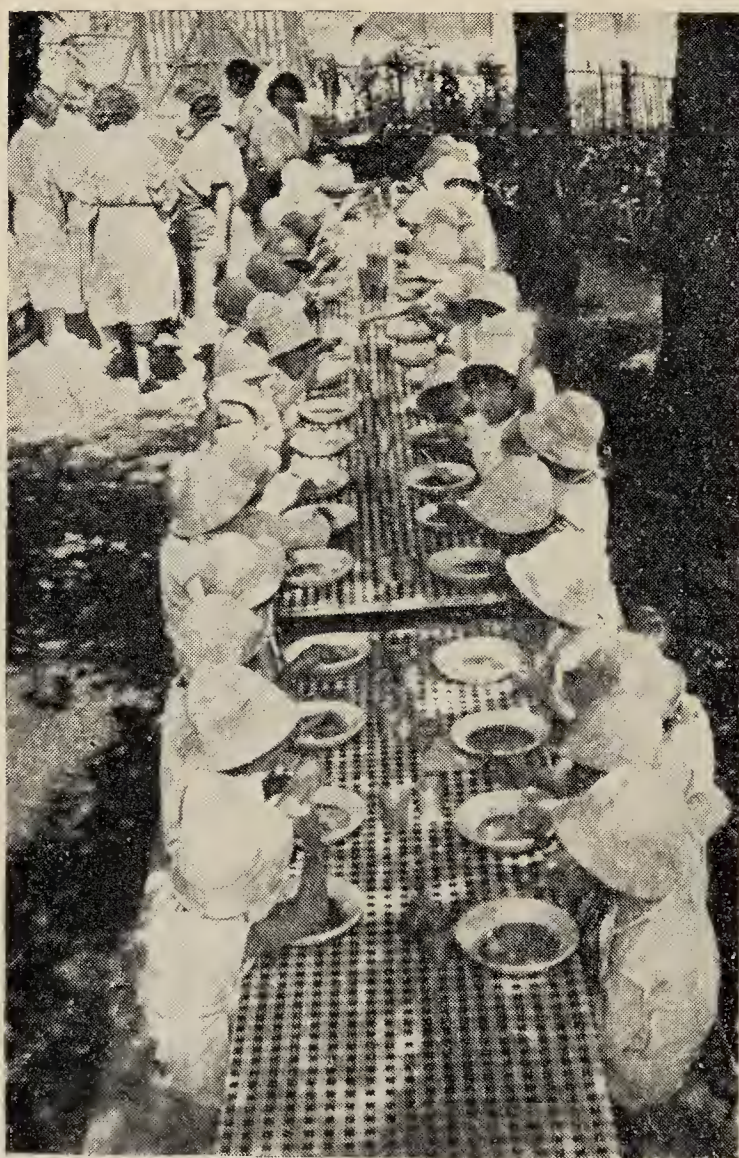
In the country and in open-air schools nature itself delights the child and teaches him much. Books are only one among many engrossing things—growing seeds, and flowers, fish and birds.

The nursery school has realized its aim outlined in its programme of moral education: 'to let the child experience the pleasures of activity'. This programme aims at eliminating the boredom that comes from having nothing to do, and encourages good humour and goodwill.

It gives the child a first inkling of the good life, both by teaching it good habits of cleanliness and politeness and by giving it its first sense of responsibility and social duties.

The task of the teacher is that of 'an intelligent and devoted mother' who takes the place of the mother who is occupied elsewhere all day long. The children are confided to her care for a greater or longer period according to the conditions of employment in the neighbourhood and to other calls on the mother's time within the home. In extreme cases the children spend as much as ten or twelve hours a day at school.

If the headmistress takes any pains, the relations between home and



*Lunch under the Trees*



school are extremely co-operative and friendly. This is chiefly because of the helplessness of the young child, his everchanging needs and the tender feeling he inspires. The parents come for help, information and advice, and the teachers visit the sick children and also meet the parents in talks and debates, and over fêtes, appeals for childhood in distress, and other co-operative undertakings.

A conscientious head of a nursery school will take a very high view of her social duties. It is not enough for her to see to the smooth running of her house, to superintend the welfare of a considerable number of children, to work

alongside of her teachers, her trained nurse, and her domestic helpers. She is not only concerned with the education of the children, but also with that of their families when they are ignorant and unpractised in the handling of children. She must thus gain the complete confidence of the mother.

There are 3,220 public nursery schools in France, with a staff of 7,800 teachers. There are also 5,700 nursery classes attached to elementary schools, and a total attendance of 530,000 children. There are also nursery classes attached to many of the secondary schools, and a good many small private modern nursery schools.



*Children at Work: Table games that give training in manual skill*



# The Relations of Home and School in France

M. L. CAZAMIAN

INTEREST in the relations between home and school is no new or passing thing in France.

Since the time of Renan, Gréard, and Buisson, everything seems to have been said about the question; every difficulty faced; every hope explored. In his book *Maîtres et Parents* (1906), Paul Cronzet gives a general summary of what had been attempted along the lines suggested by these men and others. Instructions to teachers have been issued by our successive administrations, and much has been attempted by private initiative.

After the reform of 1902, which required school children to choose between several courses at a comparatively early age, the need to bring together their natural advisers seems to have been acutely felt. But French opinion was ill-prepared for such a reform, which was much more in accord with the principles of New Education than is our present rigid system. It was soon cancelled. The War stopped progress of every kind, and we find ourselves faced to-day with the memories of many short-lived, isolated attempts and unfulfilled plans, as well as with some substantial achievements.

There is in France practically no official institution or association whose aim is to bring parents and teachers together, and no classes in any school are open to the parents except by very special permission. They are informed of the progress of their children every week or fortnight through mark books and reports, which they are expected to read and sign. A certain correspondence is maintained between the school authorities and the parents in cases of illness, epidemic, and unjustified absence. But all this is mere information rather than co-operation.

Such institutions as our *Caisses des Ecoles* and *Délégations cantonales* must, however, be mentioned. They help our schools very efficiently, and they are expected to act as

intermediaries between home and school.

The *Caisses des Ecoles*, founded in 1867, make it possible for the poor to send their children to school by giving them clothes, shoes, books, and free meals. They are supported by private donations and subscriptions, as well as by grants from the local authorities and the State.

Our *délègues cantonales* are chosen among influential people likely to take an interest in the schools of their district, who give their services free. According to official instructions, they are to stand in lieu of the pupil's father, inspecting the classes, supervizing the material arrangements of the school, watching over the hygiene and physical culture of the children. There are 20,000 of them; and they have recently formed

a national federation, in the hope of encouraging every member to fulfil his mandate and in order to give more weight to their opinions, suggestions and complaints.

In order to achieve a more regular and active co-operation between all those who

are responsible for the right working of the school, a complete plan has been drawn up, which would make obligatory the establishment of 'school councils' in every corner of France. This plan is part of the programme of the Radicals and goes by the name of one of their leaders, Daladier. It is approved and supported by the National Syndicate of school-teachers. It would combine the functions of the *Caisse des écoles* with those of the *Délégations cantonales* and give them more practical efficiency by bringing the mayor of every village, the school authorities, several municipal councillors and a delegation of parents into a close working co-operation. Each school would also receive a certain degree of financial autonomy.

If such a measure were passed, it would immediately create a strong and direct bond between home and school everywhere in France.

Parents are often reproached on account of their indifference and their propensity to rely entirely upon the teachers, while treating them

*Difficulties and Solutions*  
*in this most*  
*Important Problem*



to open and hostile criticism. Yet free associations of parents have sprung up in many places and are gradually recognized by the powers that be.

Their aim is to improve the school; but they do not always seek to do this in collaboration with the teachers or administrators. In some regions, especially where the populations are ill-reconciled to the undenominational principles of our teaching, these associations have been known to adopt a hostile policy. Such cases are quite exceptional and concern only elementary schools.

Usually the desire to establish cordial relationships with the administration and the teaching body is explicit and sincere. It is to be found in the statutes of nearly all the associations founded by the parents of secondary school pupils. Parents' Associations have been growing spontaneously around these schools for the last thirty years, and are becoming gradually more influential. The first was founded at the instigation of Dr. Gallois in 1905, numbering 20,000 members. They were federated in 1910, and they publish a monthly review, *Famille et Lycée*. Since 1928 they have had a representative on the administrative councils of the *Lycées*. Thanks to the well-advised activity of the President and Vice-President of the Federation, M. Hunziker and Mme Grimbert, their support has lately been sought by a growing number of public and private bodies and by official commissions.

They are strictly non-party and non-sectarian and their aim seems to be a double one: to watch over the welfare and health of the pupils; and to safeguard the rights of the family in what concerns the education of the child. Locally, they often secure material improvements. They do not claim to deal with points of method or curriculum, which lie outside their province. Overwork, medical supervision, physical culture, insurance against accidents are questions which have engrossed their attention of late.

They are generally on good terms with the local administration; they have sometimes their seat on the council of the *Lycée* with which they are connected. Their sittings are sometimes presided over by the headmaster or headmistress.

As for the personal relations between parents and teachers, they remain a crucial point. In

principle nobody will deny that they are of prime importance; and it is always possible for a father or mother to get an interview with his child's teacher, but such meetings are not always easy. No hour or room is set apart for the purpose; and when a teacher deals with several hundred children every week it is difficult for the parents to claim attention for any one of them. On the other hand as a rule no collective meetings are arranged or even possible, and associations of teachers have been known to refuse to have any intercourse with the Parents' Associations.

As a matter of fact, co-operation seems to be established in our *Lycées* on a basis of separation of powers; and this does not lead to breadth of view, disinterested action or mutual trust. All the parties must share the blame for this state of things.

The children, who are now used to living in different worlds at home and at school, and who have achieved a sort of moral equilibrium between the two, feel apprehensive and disturbed at the thought of an association which looks to them like a collision, maybe to their own detriment.

And the teachers themselves, overburdened, harassed with too many pupils and tyrannical programmes, are very unwilling to face new duties, especially in the teeth of possible and probable difficulties.

I have named them last because the solution rests in their hands. They know about school matters and the majority of parents do not. Theirs is the task of educating the parents and acquainting them with the aims and methods of the school, of eliciting suggestions from them, as is freely done in other countries. The existing Parents' Associations, already won over to an active and generous policy, would be extremely useful as a nucleus.

But in order to secure effective co-operation the teachers must have a different view of their mission—less specialized, less technical, more broadly human. Most of them would have to be converted to the new education; and our system, schedules, examinations, discipline would have to be entirely changed. A few teachers already try to achieve this spirit, in the face of trouble and partial failure. They are the martyrs of our cause and we should honour them.



# L'Ecole Unique

M. WEBER

IN France as in several other countries an active propaganda for reform in education is afoot. The claim for equal rights in education is a consequence of the principles of 1789 proclaimed by the French Revolution: 'Men are born and remain free and equal as regards their rights. Social distinctions can only be based upon utility to the commonwealth.'

Hampered by political changes, the realization of this principle advanced very slowly in the sphere of education during the nineteenth century. The Third Republic established an education that was secular, free and compulsory (Laws of Jules Ferry, 1880-1887). Up to the time of the Great War the chief stages in its evolution were the development of the senior elementary schools and of Normal Schools and the establishment of vocational training courses. But secondary education has remained almost entirely outside this evolutionary movement, and yet secondary education is the avenue of approach to all responsible positions in the State, to the liberal professions and to administrative posts. Secondary education has preserved its 'class' aspect, only very slightly modified by a system of scholarships. Certain laws were projected even before 1914 to make this system more liberal, but its essential character remained unchanged. On the one hand there remained a duality of systems, a primary education intended for the masses and a secondary intended for the bourgeoisie and the 'élite', who join forces in this respect. On the other hand, within the body of secondary education itself there were two distinct categories, the paying pupils and the scholars. Thus a cleft between primary and secondary education and an invidious distinction between the pupils who pay and those who have earned a place still exists.

After the signing of Peace the *Compagnons de l'Université Nouvelle*, a group of young university men from the fighting forces, were convinced, like many Frenchmen, of the urgent need of reconstructing the whole administrative framework of the nation. They set themselves

to study the conditions of a reform which should cover the whole of public instruction and which should be carried out not piecemeal but in its entirety. This reform was to make effective the recognition of the equal rights of all children to education. It was to make education free and to base the vocational selection of children on their natural aptitudes. Inspired by the German expression *Einheitschule*, the Compagnons demanded an *Ecole Unique*.

This is really a very imperfect translation of the word *Einheitschule*. Undoubtedly early education should be organized as an *école unique*—a foundation school, *Grundschule* as the Germans call it—to which all children go, whatever their origins or their ultimate destination. But this common schooling should be followed by a programme so diversified as to suit all aptitudes and fit the child for any vocation. Selection will then be a matter of helping the children to find their true road among the various openings offered to them at the second stage, instead of being, as at present, a way of making classical secondary education difficult of access. This second stage of schooling should be neither unique nor uniform *but it should be united*. This is the true meaning of the German expression *Einheitschule*, which means school of unity or unity in the school. It is in this exact and total sense that one must understand the aims of the *Ecole Unique*.

I would add that the Compagnons and those in sympathy with them are concerned only with public State education. The delicate question of private schools is complicated by historical, political and sectarian factors and must be left out of this article.

The central idea of the reform is therefore *unity*.

1. *Unity of pedagogic organization*. The present organization of the teaching services in France is extremely complicated and uncoordinated. To the general scheme published as a table in this number\* should be added numerous special schools, dependent upon the most diverse ministerial departments. Hence

\* See p. 197.



schools for physical and mental defectives are not under the Ministry of Education and certain of the schools of medicine come under the Ministry of National Defence! Furthermore, at the Ministry of Public Instruction, primary, secondary and technical education are under the direction of three entirely separate heads and really constitute three educational systems, 'parallel and rival', recruited from different social classes. In place of this confusion the upholders of the *Ecole Unique* are proposing a scheme of concerted organization which we cannot consider in detail but a table of which is given below. This plan will enable us to rationalize our academic organization and to achieve equality of educational opportunity by linking up the various stages and giving freedom of choice between various sections of the same stage.

2. *Unity of administrative organization* which should be in close touch with the plan of pedagogic organization. The creation of a Ministry of National Education is an urgent necessity. This would co-ordinate all branches of education that are dispersed at present among several

ministries. In this ministry each 'stage' would be supervised by a separate head but the three heads would be kept closely in touch with one another.

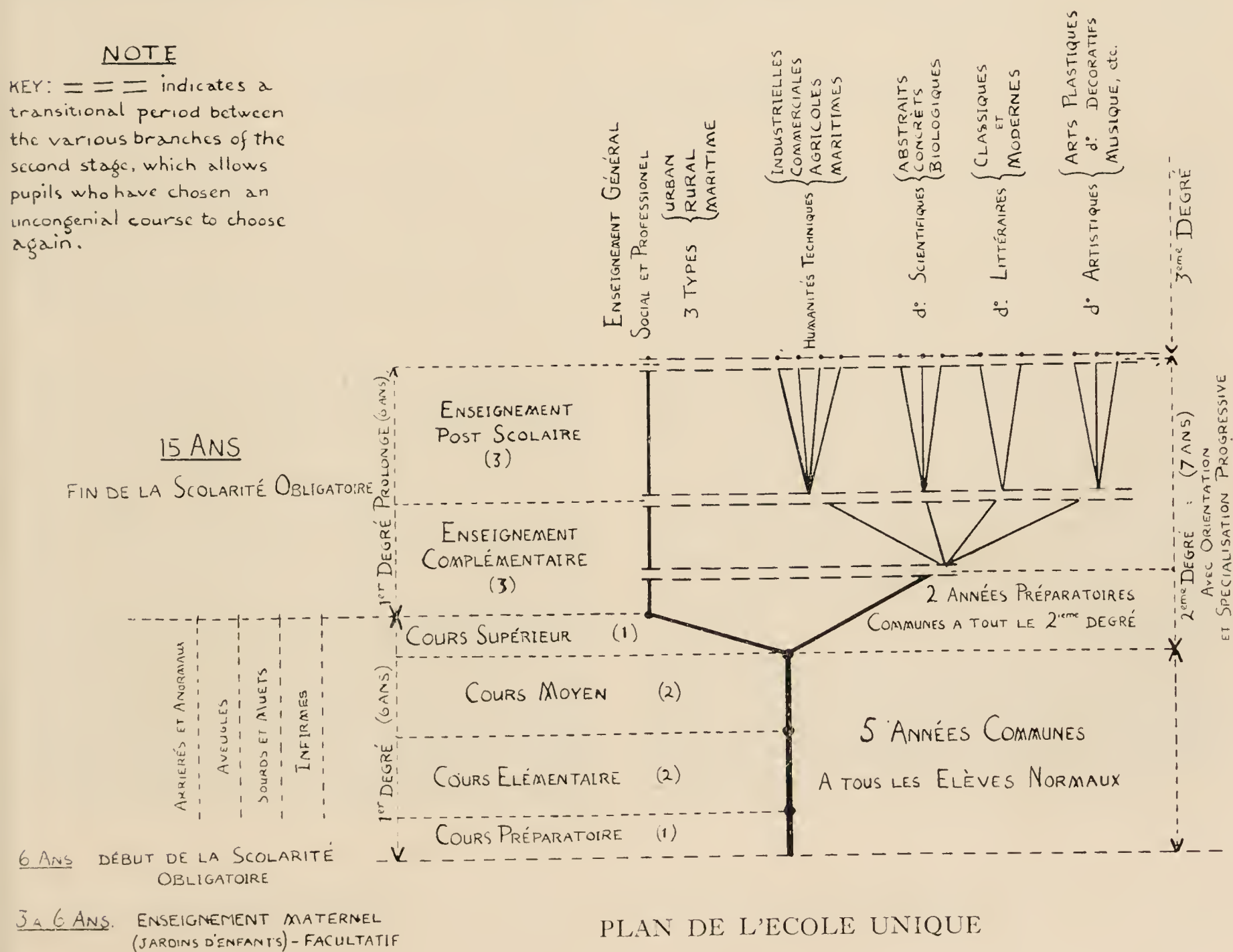
3. *Unity of recruitment of pupils.* The Compagnons would wish to suppress the two classes, paying and free, and to ensure that at every stage the selection of pupils should depend upon innate aptitudes and vocation.

4. *Unity of teachers' training.* We should like to transform the Normal Schools for teachers into pedagogic institutes, each attached to a university, where all those who intend to teach would be grounded together in psychology and the theory of teaching, no matter in what kind of school they meant to work.

5. Finally, and this ought to be the essential, we should like to ensure *unity of spirit* of education, founded on a basis of our common culture, on a desire to widen the conception of culture and on a recognition of the educative equivalence of various types of culture, classic, linguistic, literary, historic, scientific, æsthetic and vocational. This implies a profound modification of our methods of teaching, in conformity with the spirit of new education.

#### NOTE

KEY: == == indicates a transitional period between the various branches of the second stage, which allows pupils who have chosen an uncongenial course to choose again.





The working out of the programme that I have just outlined represents almost fifteen years of effort. In this have co-operated the *Compagnons de l'Université Nouvelle*, the official commission of the *Ecole Unique* (1924 to 1926), the committee of the *Ecole Unique*, and various political, social, economic and philosophic groups.

How far has this programme been realized? Up to the present little has been done. The fragmentary reforms actually under way are: unification of the programmes of the lower classes in *lycées*, colleges and primary schools; unification of the scholarships in secondary schools, senior elementary schools and technical schools; and free places in secondary day schools.

But to the upholders of the *Ecole Unique* these petty measures make true reform only the more urgently necessary, for in face of the gravity of the need these cannot be considered as even the beginnings of reform. Nothing has been done to unify the three departments of the Ministry of Public Instruction nor to institute a ministry of national education, nor to better the existing methods of selecting pupils for each type of school, nor to modernize teaching methods. On

the contrary, thanks to the reforms of 1923 to 1925, secondary education has turned its back upon the programmes of 1902 which gave at least a permissive right to get into touch with other grades. Thus the isolation of secondary education has been made still more complete, and certain of the reforms in higher education that are being put through at present are inspired by that spirit of exclusiveness which considers a classical education superior to any other, both actually and legally.

France, which in the realm of ideas is often in the vanguard of progress, thus finds herself very laggard in the field of practical materialization of her thought. The *Compagnons* and their supporters look forward with all their hearts to the day when the principle of the *Ecole Unique* forms part of the French Constitution as it does now of the German and Spanish constitutions; when various types of culture are recognized to be of equal educational value; when secondary education is unified, yet diverse enough in type to suit every child, and when every child is given that type which is best suited to his interests and capabilities, irrespective of his social status.

## Rural Education in France

P. BARRIER

IN France at present there is a movement astir to fit education more exactly to the needs of children in rural districts. It has been realized that the school, if it is to be of any real benefit to the community, must be brought into touch with practical life. The teaching that it gives must be concrete and vital and must draw its substance from the environment in which the pupil lives; the future land-workers and the little girls who will grow up to be their wives must be given better training in rural and domestic science if they are to cope with modern conditions in agriculture; lastly and most important, a concerted and patriotic effort must be made to stem the tide of rural depopulation.

It may be remarked that the causes of the migration to the towns of populations from both barren and fertile rural districts are not so much economic as moral. This migration is the result of a growth of egoism, a fear of hard work, a

distaste for life in the country, which is considered both laborious and monotonous; above all, and this is especially true of the girls, there is a feeling that by staying in the country one is dooming oneself to a coarser and lower way of life.

It is urgent therefore to point out to these young people that, though salaries in the towns are higher and prospects apparently more dazzling, life in towns is far more precarious, less healthy and more servile; also that improved means of communication, regular water and light supply, the use of modern machinery and implements, the spread of wireless and the cinema, all tend to make the days of the peasant less exhausting and to bring to his evenings many of the comforts and amusements of the towns.

The rural school should seek to develop in the children interest in the land and a desire to get the best out of it; a love for the family and for the place of their birth, and a wish to remain in



the country and lead there active, intelligent, healthy lives. I propose to outline here the chief practical measures, actual or projected, which are designed to bring about these ends in France.

Recent official memoranda all stress the need to correlate the subject-matter of the school programmes as closely as possible with the life of the countryside, to 'stimulate the children to observe actively their daily surroundings'. Questions set in the examinations for the school leaving certificate are to be carefully chosen so as to bear on this new orientation of the schools.

Further, there is a proposal to extend the period of compulsory education from 13 to 14 years, and to arrange the work of the higher classes so that it will give more general culture, with a rural bias, and, moreover, a preparatory course in the theory and practice of those sciences that have a direct bearing upon rural life. Thus the boys would do carpentry and joinery in the school workshops, and would take an active share in the work of the school garden and the demonstration fields. The elder girls would not only do dressmaking and knitting as they do to-day, but also cooking, laundry-work and domestic economy and they would have more advanced lessons in hygiene and infant welfare.

In the continuation courses designed for such children as can continue their education for one or two years after the completion of compulsory elementary education, it would be essential to consider, in the case of the girls, the various duties that fall to the country housewife: *her social rôle*, the upbringing and early teaching of children; safeguarding the home by organizing family life; the hygiene of its inmates and of the house itself; home medicine: *her economic rôle*—the management of the household purse, the choice and preparation of food, the menseful use of farm products, the care of the linen, clothes and rooms; the duty of adapting her domestic economy to the needs and resources of the country: *her rôle as producer*—tending the poultry yard and the domestic animals; upkeep of the kitchen garden; dairy work.

These continuation courses must be equipped not only with libraries, cinema apparatus and wireless, but with all that is necessary for teaching the domestic arts (cooking,

dressmaking, laundry) and also hygiene, infant welfare and the smaller forms of agriculture.

For those who cannot attend a continuation course, it is proposed to extend and make compulsory a post-school course. The obligatory attendance would be eighteen weeks in a year, to be made up of periods of not less than a week at a time. Such a course would cover much the same ground as the continuation courses outlined above, though in rather less detail.

Apart from these official measures, which will embrace the whole countryside, there have been certain private local movements which tend towards the enrichment of rural life.

In the districts of the south-east a competition has been started, in an attempt to 'reward and draw attention to those rural communes or other units which have carried out the highest degree of agricultural improvement of every kind'. Such improvements must be co-operative in nature and must aim at rendering the material conditions of the lives of village labourers more productive and less arduous and, above all, at making the village itself healthier, cleaner, and more pleasant to live in.

The organizers of this competition pointed out what a modern village should offer as regards hygiene (cleanliness, good water supply, latrines, and medical service), lighting and motor power, public services (town hall, schools, post office), agricultural equipment, comfort and amusement.

With similar ends in view, another group is organizing a prize for the best monographs on 'the practical measures that should be taught in country districts, in order to spread knowledge of newer scientific processes in so far as they can better rural living conditions' (accommodation, food, hygiene, conditions of work for both men and women, comfort, amusements, etc.).

In short, certain groups of people engaged in adult education are doing all that lies in their power to increase the number and scope of rural education centres, to further moral training, physical training and the Boy Scout movement, to give outlet to the æsthetic faculties of the child, so as to endow the youth of rural districts with a higher and more attractive way of life, and thus to help in the struggle to prevent the drift of population from the country to the towns.



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# School Co-operatives

## M. PROFIT

CERTAIN educational authorities in various parts of the world are making an effort to direct youth towards collective activities which, being economically productive, will bring children into direct contact with practical life. This is, for example, the aim of the *Société Forestière* in France and of the Young Farmers' Clubs in English-speaking countries.

If, in such an enterprise, part of the profits are devoted to social ends, that is to say, to the bettering of school conditions both from the educational and the material point of view, the results attained are of definite practical value. It must not be expected, however, that the benefits of purely economic co-operation can be of a higher order among children than in an adult society, where they are usually on an entirely utilitarian plane. Nowhere in life can the effort to buy in the cheapest market for one's personal gain, even if the effort be made in association with others, have any appreciable educational value.

The Boy Scout movement has other ends in view. The many activities undertaken by Scouts do not attempt to be economically productive. Their aim is purely educational. The *Co-opératives Scolaires* aim at both material and educational benefits. They do not seek to make any profit for the benefit of the individual. They certainly undertake all sorts of small enterprises for earning money, but these enterprises are nothing other than a means of gaining the children's interest and leading them to take upon themselves the responsibility for their own education.

The activities undertaken by the children differ according to the age of the pupils, the locality of the school and various other circumstances. Among such undertakings are: collecting medicinal herbs, hunting for snails, growing vegetables and tending fruit trees, selling drawings and handicrafts, organizing fêtes, concerts, etc. The young members are always finding ingenious ways of adding to this list and each society chooses occupations within its powers. Where an initial outlay is needed,

it is provided by outside donations or is collected by the children among themselves.

The funds raised by these activities are never distributed or divided; they are used in their entirety for improvements or equipment which benefit all and yet which could not have been obtained from the State or the commune, nor even from school benefactors, owing either to poverty or to a lack of understanding of the needs of the school.

Thus all the members benefit from their common efforts just as their successors in the school will do. All that has been or will be achieved in the improvement of the cloak-rooms, the museum, the school workshops, and cinema apparatus, is a symbol of the solidarity of the group. It all makes the children realize what great things can be achieved by united effort and it is a permanent stimulus to continue such effort, since it produces such worthwhile results.

Once the results of the children's activities became known, we obtained assistance from people who were formerly quite oblivious of our needs. The municipality awoke to its duties and now willingly undertakes payment for the major alterations asked of it—enlarging windows, roofing courtyards, and renewing old furniture. Thus the co-operation of the schoolchildren has rapidly developed into the co-operation of the whole population in the work of the schools.

The French *Coopération Scolaire* is not merely an attempt to obtain a fair price in the purchase of school equipment. Neither is it an effort to relieve the larger body, the State or commune, of its just charges. Its intention is to buy only what it cannot legally demand from them or things which it has asked for again and again without success.

The business side of the plan has an educational value of its own. Buying and selling, giving and taking orders, organizing fêtes and so on, all entail numerous activities which used to find no place in the school and which give a wider outlook on life. These undertakings demand responsiveness and self-sacrifice. They thus create in the school an atmosphere that is



favourable for education and discipline. And the new equipment, which owes its existence to the efforts of the children, brings them an enhanced sense of personal responsibility and a wish to keep the things clean and tidy.

As regards the new equipment, we do not merely ask the children to raise the necessary funds, we also show full confidence in their powers to use the money well. It is they who talk over and choose the things to be bought and the actual models most suited to their needs. This is the first time that children in France have been given any freedom of choice in matters which demand particular care in the choosing. They have recognized their responsibility and made good use of this opportunity.

They were given to understand from the first that established rules are necessary in any society which is to last. They drew up these rules themselves and appointed 'dignitaries' from among their own number, who were charged to see that they were carried out. The constitution of the new republic was placed under the authority of an administrative council, comprising a President, Vice-Presidents,

Secretaries, and Treasurers. And the free men of the Co-operative obey those whom they have elected, or rather the common law which these officials represent.

This was, however, only a first stage in the life of the Co-operatives. We should have been content to limit its scope and to see in so promising an organization merely a means of improving school conditions in a material sense. But once this machinery was created, we saw that it might be used for the gradual betterment of the moral atmosphere, for transforming the whole spirit of the school, and as a new step towards the education of the whole child.

Thus nowadays, from the intellectual point of view, we do not so much instruct them as educate them. We give the children more opportunities to teach themselves. They are brought into touch with concrete reality, through the school garden and workshops, through keeping the premises clean, decorating the classrooms, drawing up reports and inter-school correspondence, studying local history and geography, and so on. Moreover they are daily faced with new questions to solve which would



*Coopératives Scolaires*

*Gathering medicinal herbs before school*



otherwise never have arisen. This develops their sense of initiative. They learn to observe and think. The qualities thus acquired are brought to bear upon their studies. The material collected leads to fresh experiments, which are always prepared by the children. They thus learn to undertake personal research. Sometimes they work in groups, but in any case they work for the good of all. The old competitive striving for first place has disappeared; they have learnt to help one another. Even the small children feel this sense of solidarity, which prevents them from getting into disorderly or lazy habits.

And this new atmosphere, reacting upon the conduct of each pupil, tends towards sound moral training. Even outside the school the child feels he is in the eye of his companions. He knows that in the group of which he is a member there is a keen sense of justice and moreover that the group does not punish, it merely withdraws its confidence from any member who may compromise the good name of all. A hard punishment for anyone who has not yet suffered it! And thus the child will become accustomed to making his practice conform to his theory, to submitting to the laws which he has sanctioned, to obeying those whom he has elected. This means that, beyond any external constraint, he will be obeying his own conscience. Thus from the self-government instituted in the classroom will rise a habit of responsible behaviour.

Our philosophers and statesmen have set great hopes on the school as a place of social training for the individual. Till now the school has been too unorganized to do much in this way. But now it has an organization of its own. It has become the transitional social group between Family and Country in which personality can develop in an atmosphere of freedom. The school which was formerly autocratic has become democratic, from being individualistic it has become socially-minded. As in the hive, each one co-operates for the good of all. There is no longer any pleasure in criticizing the master, in sowing disorder, in getting out of duties, in escaping regulations.

The great joy now is to co-operate with the master, to establish order and make it respected, to accept and to fulfil loyally the duties, however humble, imposed by the community. This mutual help is also shown towards the small and weak and poor and backward. Thus the child learns unselfishness and his social sense is heightened.

In this new régime there is no more problem of discipline. The master who was yesterday the autocrat, has become the friend and counsellor. He suggests, teaches and watches from afar, letting his pupils run on ahead of him. He lets them accustom themselves to practical life, to intelligent research, to working and living in common. They make their own laws of cleanliness, politeness, work and discipline. They see that these laws do not become dead letters and they are particularly hard upon anyone elected by them who forgets to set them a good example!

So, in spite of all our sympathy for commercial co-operative societies, our results are no longer of an economic order. In spite of our pleasure in seeing bare and ill-equipped schools blossom into beauty we are no longer concerned with merely material progress. It is in the moral sphere and towards the formation of a new social spirit that the French *Coopérative Scolaire* is developing, and the young co-operators of France are moving towards the general co-operation of mankind.

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# Letter to a Young Drawing Master

DEAR X,

I suppose I should really address you as 'Dominie', but neither you nor I have got used to your new honours as yet.

Truth to tell, you've been in no great hurry to join your profession. It's some years now since you finished at the *École des Beaux Arts* and you were doubtless reluctant to leave the pleasant ways of unfettered creation, even though they did lack security. I don't blame you. Most teachers have felt the same reluctance, which is even more natural to the artist than to the student of letters or science.

But I assure you, your present decision is a right one. For the freedom for which so many students sacrifice all security does not exist. The artist is no more free than the bureaucrat. He is only free for as long as he is unknown. Success brings bonds of its own.

The artist's great advantage—his personal treasure—is his untiring and passionate quest for beauty. He carries within him a flame which will illumine all his inner life, once he is no longer occupied with vulgar cares. Your new profession will not interfere with this cult. You will hear the literature master complain that he cannot get on with his thesis without access to a library, and the chemistry master grumble that he is helpless without a laboratory. Whereas you can paint the country side about you and the portraits of your friends, as your *dæmon* drives you. And unless you are graceless you will thank heaven for making you a painter—a man who needs nothing but his eyes to see with and his hand to translate what he sees.

Given that you are a conscientious teacher, the authorities will not reproach you for being an artist. They know well enough that your value to your pupils does not depend upon the closeness with which you follow the official programmes, nor even upon the soundness of your corrections and counsels. It depends quite as much upon the man you are yourself.

But I know you too well to think it necessary to advise you not to stifle the artist in you. I was only wanting to assure you that there is no truth in the legend that teaching is incompatible with

creative work. An artist can be an excellent drawing master without betraying his muse. One learns a great deal by teaching, and though I know that you express your thoughts more easily with a pencil than in words, you will soon learn the habit of verbal explanation.

But for the moment I am writing to you as to a teacher who has not yet tried out his powers. You probably feel disconcerted for the moment by the bareness of the classrooms and corridors, the solemnity of your colleagues and the regularity of your hours. Within your own classroom you will have been confronted by rows of young faces turned towards you—all the more curiously because of your own obvious youth. And, like the good artist that you are, you will have realized that here is material to your hand, spiritual material that you must fashion. It is up to you as a teacher to hold and direct the curiosity and attention of these children, to rouse their interest and keep it on the stretch while they carry out the work that you propose for them.

And what sort of work are you going to propose? This is where the official syllabus will be helpful. In case you have not made a hobby of perusing this I advise you to get a copy from your headmaster. It was drawn up in 1911, and contains eighty octavo pages of close print, giving a very detailed and progressive scheme of work. It was drawn up by experienced teachers and good painters and you will easily recognize its purpose if you remember that it is the product of the reaction against the rather abstract instruction that used to predominate in our schools.

You are too young to remember the rigours of that quarrel, which was something of a revolution in its day. The ousted method was called after Guillaume, a noted sculptor who had inspired it. It consisted of an attempt to train the eye to measure accurately, to see the simple planes of a complex model, to construct. For a mature spirit this method contains the truth itself, but it is too arid and abstract for children, who are in the act of investigating reality and being enchanted by it.

That is why the wan troupe of plaster figures



have had to give place to less elevated but more living objects. In the cupboards of your school studio you will have found jugs, drums, a watering-can, toys, whereas the solid cubes and spheres and triangles of whitened zinc sleep neglected beneath the blank stare of Brutus and the smile, the 'hideous smile', of Voltaire.

The new régime differs from the old chiefly because it sets the pupil face to face with reality itself instead of expecting him to discover reality's disembodied, colourless geometry. See how well our pedagogic methods reflect the movements of modern art. The Guillaume method was obviously derived from the classical tradition which has caused sculptural conceptions to dominate French painting ever since the Renaissance. The new method is a result of the triumph of the picturesque under the Naturalists and Impressionists. But when the Impressionists had exhausted all the aspects of the rainbow, younger masters, in search of newer vistas, found them by restoring to a place of honour a quality which had been jettisoned by the Impressionists. The moderns dowsed the fireworks of dawn and sunset in order the better to show the solidity of form. Thus an astonishing thing happened. Almost at the very moment when our pedagogues banned the geometry of Guillaume, it regained its high repute in modern painting under the famous banner of Cubism. Cubism propounded a vision so extravagant as to make even geometry fantastic. Its practice was absurd, but its theory was sound enough. It was essentially the theory of Guillaume.

But all this savours of metaphysics and even of hair-splitting. You are expected to be a good draughtsman in order to teach drawing, for *They* know very well that the most ingenious of pedagogic precepts are not worth as much as the example of an adept. You yourself have learnt to see nature finely and to reproduce it finely.

Teach what you know. Pedagogic precepts are little more than counsels for your guidance in a profession that is new to you. The official syllabus which I mentioned just now can make no claim to be a substitute for your personal influence. The most it can do is to suggest to you exercises whose variety will lend your lessons added interest.

Another innovation is the introduction of craftwork into the school programmes. I seem to remember that you yourself did not get very high marks in the decorative arts. I conclude from this that you did not consider this branch of your work to be of much importance. I hope that the interest that your pupils take in it will serve to convert you.

Doubtless you feel that these agreeable occupations fall far short of our ambition, which is to teach our pupils, through drawing, to see nature more clearly and to interpret and understand her. Nevertheless, the applied arts form happy and useful stepping stones. In the first place they give a child a sense of encouragement through achievement. Even those who have no great gift for drawing can, by a happy arrangement of simple designs and colours, produce something that is decorative and pleasing. Next, craftwork offers an excellent training in taste, and therefore furthers the general aim of our secondary education, which is to develop and refine the intelligence and sensibility of our pupils. Girls in particular get great benefit in this respect, and pass naturally enough from their traditional occupations of needlework and embroidery to making charming things in wood, cardboard and leather. Lastly, the school itself benefits from good craftwork. With the help of a picked band of your pupils you can render more beautiful the dining-room, staircase and passages, and above all your own art room, thus widening your rôle in the community and showing that the subject you teach gives both usefulness and pleasure.

I know that you will soon be complaining that your enthusiasm tilts in vain against the stolidity of habit and the antagonism of the utilitarians. I can already hear you lament that as soon as your pupils are old enough to approach the major difficulties and joys of your art, they 'drop' drawing and give all their time to the subjects required for the *baccalauréat*. And you will admit yourself that those who continue to come to your classes are handicapped, for not only do they get no marks for drawing in the examinations, but they forfeit valuable time that they might have expended upon examination subjects.

This is only too true and there is worse to be feared. Times are hard and the education



authorities are forced to economize. There is real danger that they may suppress altogether those subjects that are now optional. The temptation is great: the need for economy, the fear of overworking the children, the pretence of lightening the time-table, the indifference of the parents, all these things work against us. You will have to exert yourself lest one day your department should disappear altogether.

But do not regret that there is no test in drawing in the *baccalauréat*. If there were a serious drawing test between the French essay and the Latin unseen, your classes would undoubtedly be larger, but you would be faced with a heavy responsibility. You would have to promise success to every hardworking candidate, and yet in your subject natural aptitude counts for far more than the most skilful teaching and the most painstaking work. There are examinations, such as that at the Ecole Polytechnique, in which drawing from the cast is one of the regular subjects. This fact suffices to ensure crowded classes for the drawing master. The greater number of pupils are only there in order to learn to draw well enough to pass the test. Once that is accomplished, they think no more of the matter. Do not imagine that you could recruit draughtsmen from among poor harassed examination candidates.

Drawing has no need to figure in an examination syllabus. Its rôle in secondary education is indisputable. Once we make up our minds that the function of education is not to furnish the memories of children but to develop their natural faculties harmoniously, their intelligence, sensibility and taste and even their physical grace and strength, from that moment the arts will take their place—and that a wide one—alongside of letters, the sciences and physical training.

You will certainly fall into discussion with your colleagues at some time or another as to the respective merits of your various subjects. You will notice that the teachers of literature hold the place of honour. You must not find this astonishing or exasperating. Secondary education was originally an exclusively literary education. The professor of rhetoric, though he has changed his style, remains the heir-in-chief to the tradition of secondary education.

Philosophy, the sciences, history and modern languages are all newcomers compared with rhetoric. Thus secondary education, which has moulded so many generations and which has been so largely responsible for fostering the French genius, has developed, beyond all else, the art of marshalling one's thoughts with clarity and expressing them with elegance.

The only reproach that one might make to this admirable culture is that it has directed our attention too exclusively to the subtleties of *the word*. Doubtless words are the symbols of thoughts and emotions, but they are only their symbols and one knows only too well that words have the power to divert our interest from *things*. Anything that can counterbalance this power of the word—an inseparable adjunct of a bookish culture—should be sought out and cultivated with care. The natural sciences, geography, and the history of art are the best antidotes to the abuses of merely verbal abstractions.

Drawing is an indispensable means of transcribing concrete knowledge. It is by drawing that one learns to observe closely and to seize the meaning of form. It is by drawing real things that one sets one's intelligence in direct contact with reality.

To have tried to draw and to have realized some of the difficulties of the art is a useful introduction to the appreciation of fine painting, just as to have tried one's best to write a few good pages of prose or verse is an admirable way of learning to appreciate fine writing.

You will certainly have many discussions with your colleagues upon all these points. I do not think you will lack arguments with which to defend the high dignity of your profession. You are more convinced than most that drawing holds a place in the education of any man of culture. Besides which, my letter is already over long.

So I wish you all good fortune. I should be very glad to learn of your first impressions of your pupils and your colleagues, and I assure you that I am following the opening of your teaching career with the most cordial interest.

Louis Hourticq



# Social Training through New Education

G. BERTIER

WE do not mean to use this article as an opportunity to criticize the traditional school. Those who take the trouble to realize the part played by the New Education in the training of the child will understand the difference between this and the old rigid school system.

The new school trains the whole child so as to prepare a whole man. Short of this it is not new education. For my part, I much prefer to designate the so-called *new* education as *integral* education, thus showing that it is in no sense a passing fashion, and does not merely aim at change but at an exact and integral ideal, which it pursues steadfastly.

It does not divide human personality into two mutually indifferent parts, body and soul—according to the false demarcation of Descartes. It considers body and soul to be an intimate unity whose education is inseparable. 'Qui veut faire l'ange fait la bête', said Pascal, and he who neglects, in the training of the child, the objective and material side of the ego, runs the risk of destroying the intelligence and even the moral sense. A rational physical life, and good health must come first.

And when new education sets about training the intelligence of the child it does not broach its more abstract and higher planes at the outset. We fear the danger of permanently dulling his interest in things of the mind—though this is a risk that others seem to take light-heartedly. We allow the child's mind to unfold gradually by natural and logical stages—first knowledge gained through the senses, inductive reasoning, good sense and sensitiveness of mind, ending up with thought and deductive reasoning.

In this we are guided by no empiricism but by a carefully reasoned philosophy. We follow nature and her laws, and it is the child himself who teaches the thoughtful teacher how best to teach, or rather how best to help and guide.

New Education considers the formation of character, the moral and social life, as deserving first place among the preoccupations of the school. It does not shirk any part of this duty. It tackles frankly, in an atmosphere of mutual

respect, the difficult problem of preparing the child for marriage and for the duties of parenthood. And it shows him a conception of friendship as something very warm and clear, something rich and noble. I consider this appeal to the higher self, this perpetual heightening of the powers of the soul, to be an essential part of new education.

Each of these aspects of education—physical, intellectual, moral—deserves a detailed examination. I wish here, on the eve of the Nice Conference, to deal with the *social* training of the child in our schools.

If the family, and not the individual, is to be considered as the unit of the social group, then social training must begin with this unit. Hence the division of all new schools into *families*. Usually, as at Les Roches, each family has a house of its own, but even if all are housed under one roof the family division is firmly drawn.

At the head of each house we place a real family which sets out to give the children an inkling of the lovely kindness, the permanent collaboration and the calm and smiling happiness of family life. Thirty years have gone by and ten families have lived in our ten houses, showing our boys how happy and fruitful a thing is true family life. We believe that these examples will not have been wasted, and that the boys will have grown up with a wish to found in their turn families in which the parents love one another and are not afraid of life.

New Education has given a new ring to the words authority and liberty and a special meaning to the relationship between masters and pupils. It has proved that liberty can be a spontaneous love of order, and that a child of normal and upright character seeks of his own accord work, duty, collaboration and a punctual fulfilment of his obligations.

Our children go freely from one occupation to another, and every visitor gains a synthetic impression of methodical and ordered activity. Authority, whether represented by a master or, as is much more frequent, by a captain, is understood first and foremost as service. The



big are there to help the small, just as, among the Boy Scouts, the strong protect the weak. We thus rear men who will seek to bear their social responsibilities, not for the savage joy of subduing, but for the joy of helping forward the development of other growing personalities.

The New School is certainly not paving the way for dictatorships in the family, the factory, the municipality or the state, but for a reign of liberty in orderliness.

This does not by any means imply that we are undermining the boys' sense of respect or veneration. When a master is good and just, when he devotes himself to the children as a good father might, he receives in exchange the love and confidence of his pupils. He is understood without having to raise his voice; his counsel is followed because it has been proved good; he is chosen as guide because he has never heckled or punished—these things are in themselves his reward.

The child at liberty loves action and seeks through it to expand his many-sided personality. But the school should tend to organize in a social sense the many personalities within its walls. Initiative should direct itself towards concerted action. Only so can the school become a nursery for good citizenship.

Therefore we give the child social responsibility as early as possible. He should learn very early to sink his own interests in those of his neighbour. An egoist is not fully human. These first responsibilities have often been described—I will merely indicate them. In the classrooms chosen boys are responsible for tidying and airing the room and distributing material. In each house the boys are responsible for everything except sweeping and cooking and on occasion they turn their hand even to these. The library is managed by a boy, the bicycle sheds by a boy, the dormitories and studies by the captains who are always senior boys. The rearing of domestic animals is always done by the pupils; the putting on and off of lights by one boy, the showerbaths by another. A harmonious collaboration of the whole family is responsible for the order of the house—both material and moral. And as far as possible the boys entrusted with these services are chosen by their peers—anyhow they are never chosen without the full assent of the captains.

These latter are almost always trained under the same sequence of progressive responsibilities. A boy is first entrusted with the distribution of stamps and pocket-money, or some similar task. When he has shown himself trustworthy the captains co-opt him to a higher function. He will be put in charge of a dormitory, where he becomes the living example of the law. This is already a heavy responsibility for a child. He must have both solidity and pluck. A good head of a dormitory is already a leader.

One step more in the scale of social service, and he is given charge of a study. He must see that the boys arrive punctually and work steadily and calmly; he must help them to find the right way of approach to whatever study they are tackling. A born study leader knows how to create an atmosphere of silence, attention and hard work which will imprint itself on the whole spirit of his house. As soon as he is in the room, each boy will set about his work eagerly, bent upon doing his best, while having a friendly regard for the work of others.

Head of a dormitory, of a study—our young leader is already a vice-captain. The next step is to become a captain, who has authority not only over his own house but over the whole school, and who has a much-valued privilege—a study of his own. A new captain is proposed to his housemaster by the other captains and his appointment is also approved by the school council. He thus has the double backing of pupils and staffs.

A captain at the *École des Roches* has been appointed by his comrades because of some outstanding quality—moral, intellectual or athletic—and because of the happy balance of his personality. He is elected above all for his character. He is already a mature personality, and his authority is evident and very rarely questioned.

He continues to be responsible for a dormitory and a study, and moreover shares in the responsibility for the morale of one of the Houses. One captain in each house is Council Captain, i.e. he takes part in the meetings presided over fortnightly by the Headmaster or weekly by the Head Captain. In the latter are discussed such matters of internal organization as lie within the province of the boys. The



captains are intermediaries between the pupils and the headmaster and they help the latter to obtain a more intimate impression of the whole life of the school.

The moral life of a house is in the hands of its Head and his captains. Its material organization and its social life are entrusted to the *House Committee*. This Committee finds the funds necessary for raising poultry, rabbits and pigs. It decides what improvements are to be made, what books are to be bought for the library, what newspapers and magazines are to be taken. It is elected by all the members of the house—and the elections are sometimes fairly heated.

Games are managed by a Committee composed entirely of boys, to which the teachers and games master are merely technical advisers. So are the workshops, fêtes, and the Committee whose business it is to supervise the progress of all outside work done on the houses, parks, woods and fields. The same is true of the boys' Magazine, *l'Echo des Roches*, which appears every month and which varies in tone from courteous satire to heartfelt eloquence, from an account of a lecture to friendly notes from the old boys. The *Society of Charities* and social work is also run by the pupils and plays an important part in their civic training. It collects quite a considerable amount of money and brings its members into touch not only with the injustices and miseries of our social system but with the most modern and efficacious means of relieving them.

During the last few years the clubs have multiplied. Philosophy, English History, Spanish, German, all have clubs of their own which often have results beneficent to the whole community. This year the Spanish Club translated Benaventi's 'The Farce of Interests' and produced it, making their own scenery, properties and costumes. It was a very fine performance and the translation is quite worthy of publication.

One last word on a subject which is rather outside the scope of this article and yet which

has a direct bearing on the social training of our pupils.

Each year old boys come down and tell the School about the various activities in which they are engaged—giving some idea of their scope and social usefulness. They arouse each time greater enthusiasm and a desire to follow in their footsteps. Do I need to add that these talks from old boys carry more weight than the most eloquent appeal that we masters could make? Life calls to life; activity from without to that within the school. The tradition perpetuates itself, the torch is passed down from hand to hand.

I have not yet spoken of the international spirit which should animate every member of New Education. We incite it ceaselessly by reading, by numerous foreign visitors, and by the period that all our pupils spend in England (two and a half months to a year) and many of them in Germany, German-Switzerland and Austria. We live out this spirit still more actively in our Boy Scout troops. This is the greatest movement of international youth, and it makes the Chief Scout, Baden-Powell, the best worker for peace and the one, to my mind, most worthy of the Nobel Prize. Congresses, International Jamborees, frequent exchanges, far-spread correspondences, all that helps forward mutual understanding between children and nations.

But the most vigorous impulse towards the brotherhood of peoples lies in the Scout's formal promise to treat *all* men as friends and brothers.

Our children's republic does each member the honour of considering him a citizen and of making him responsible for some part of its social life. Our chief aim is to prepare him to co-operate later on with all his fellow-citizens faithfully and selflessly in the firm will to further the public good. We show him that there is no true happiness that is not shared.

The periods spent abroad and the Scout activities prepare him to become a good world-citizen without in any way forfeiting his birth-right as a Frenchman.



# Notes on Some Schools in France

## The Printing Press at School

M. FREINET

SINCE 1923 we have used printing in our school in an attempt to deliver teacher and taught alike from the tyranny of dead textbooks, and as a means of keeping pace with the children's natural daily activities. The experiment has succeeded far better than we hoped. A printing-press makes it possible to compose and print in the classroom itself the gist of the day's doings, and has resolved one of the most serious problems of primary education—that of adapting it to the natural background of the child. We have found a means of appealing constantly to the child's powers of observation and thought. Printing gives the children a method of world co-operation and interchange of ideas, it makes the school part of the surging life of the world. We have released a spring of vital energy, which is poured forth in the joyous activity of creation, as the masters of psychology have urged us to do, and the marked improvement in all branches of school work justifies and reconciles the theoretical psychologist and practical pedagogue.

Language benefits by repeated and accurate composition done with a clearly understood purpose. The young people's compositions in *La Gerbe* have a spirit and sensibility and naïve truthfulness which contrast vividly with the rhetoric of the old textbooks; and the forty-two pamphlets, *Extraits de la Gerbe*, gain well-earned praise.

The printing press gives new meaning to the teaching of grammar. We have demonstrated in *Grammaire en quatre pages, par l'Imprimerie à l'École* how we are able to give children both the grammatical sense and the theoretic knowledge demanded by our Certificat d'Études Primaires, without any special drill,

dull exercises and learning rules by heart.

The printing technique sharpens the power of observation and of individual and group experimentation; it directly strengthens the science work because, when records of research are printed, they are much clearer and more satisfactory. Also inter-school exchanges make natural science a very real interest.

Arithmetic forms an integral part of the life of the children. As regards history, our *Livre de Vie*\* is already a living record of local history in embryo and gives a child a first glimmering of historic sense. By reading school journals from other parts of France the child adds to these early impressions. We look forward to formulating a method of teaching history simply and without any of the rodomontades of the textbooks, and so bringing the subject within the range and compass of childhood.

Geography too, through our printing-press, has become a rational and living study. In company with our young comrades in France and in other parts of the world we are learning to know other departments and countries, their climates, produce, ways and customs seen through the eyes of childhood. These bits of

knowledge are no longer paragraphs from textbooks. Each region of France has now a character of its own, caught in word and photograph in our co-operative school files, and in films made by the children themselves.

The printing technique makes the children set out like comrades to find and exchange knowledge of all sorts. We have abolished hypocritical teaching of morality and instead our bracing



Peasant

Reprint from 'La Gerbe'

\* The *Livre de Vie* is the text printed each day by the children.



co-operative efforts help us to lead the good life.

I have tried to show that the novelty of our technique does not lie in the fact that we print our own text of work in our schoolroom—we have tried to make it the instrument of attaining a new technique in school life, to achieve a renewal of spontaneous activity in all that

concerns the children's fundamental needs, and we are thankfully aware that we have tapped mysterious vital forces. At Nice we are exhibiting a large collection of our work and visitors will be able to gauge for themselves the constructive contribution that it makes to the psychology and teaching theory of the elementary school.

## *L'Enfance Heureuse : Vaucresson*

Mmes LEROUX—RIEDEL

OUR school was founded after years of experiment, for if young children are to be happy in a school of this kind, everything is important. The diet must not only be good, it must be perfect, otherwise the child exhausts its energies and gets ill. His manner of clothing needs care, so does the rhythm of the house—its orderliness and the choice of personnel. All these problems must be resolved, not more or less but perfectly, because for little children nothing is good enough but the best.

We chose a house near Paris, close by the wood of La Marche; it was not built especially for us, but all we had to do was to remove a few partition walls in order to make two large, light rooms and an immense playroom, where the children do their eurhythmics, dancing and acting and have their orchestra and weaving looms.

We only accept boarders. The bedrooms, where the children sleep in groups of three under the care of a junior mistress, contain nothing but the barest necessities, but these are chosen with taste. In the large garden they have little gardens, look after domestic animals, climb the trees, build huts, and in fact lead an active and varied life which should be the normal life of children.

Teaching is based on the Montessori method which we have adopted in its entirety. It offers immense advantages, for it is a method not only of instruction but of education, so that, from the time he gets up to the time he goes to bed, the child develops in an atmosphere that we do our best to make Montessorian. He is tranquil and happy and we regard all his efforts with sympathy and try to learn from them his real nature and the way in which we should help him.

It is an atmosphere in which each one tries to make life happy and pleasant for others, without doing things for them that they should do for themselves. Our children have understood so well that this is no true kindness that you will never see them picking up even one of the mere babies if he can get on without it.

The children do Dalcroze Eurhythmics and free dancing. They have a little orchestra and the conductor is sometimes a real artist of eight years old. They take naturally to weaving, modelling and dress-making. We are always astonished at the amount they know outside of and beyond the Lycée programmes.

We base our diet entirely on Dr. Carton's menus and thanks to this the children are



*A Windy Day*  
Reprint from 'La Gerbe'



never ill. They have magnificent health and a hardihood that everyone envies them. We spend the four summer months in the pine forest, at the mouth of the Arcachon and

this time at the seaside is as good for the child's spirit as for his body.\*

\* See Nos. 78, 86 and 97 of *La Nouvelle Education*.

## The New School at Clamart

Mme ROUBAKINE

THE New School at Clamart was the first to be founded near Paris with the aim of removing the child daily from the factory smoke and dusty roads of a great city. The school was started in 1927 with a bare half-dozen pupils. Our first visitors were attracted by the setting in which the children were to work and parents sent their children that they might benefit by unusually healthy surroundings, but without any belief that methods of work based on activity were better than the traditional methods. Most of them suspected our freedom and feared a lack of moral training and a handicap in future examinations—they even said plainly that, once the children were set up in health, they must not be allowed to 'waste their time'.

Yet those who, at the outset, were most doubtful about our methods are our warmest supporters. The school has grown only thanks to the recommendations of parents. By 1931 it was full and we had even a waiting list. We are now enlarging our premises.

The children arrive at 9 o'clock in cars. They have a few minutes' play and do physical exercises in the garden. Then they set to work, using Montessori materials. The atmosphere of the classrooms is calm; the children concentrate on their work, in which their personality is given great scope. Since they enjoy their activities, they do their best, taking no notice of their neighbours except to help them.

Thanks to the carefully graded material, the pupils are able to direct their own activities and organize their work as they think best. They adopt various methods of working. A minority (three out of a class of sixteen eight-year-olds) do arithmetic and grammar every morning, and insist upon spending an equal amount of time upon each. A few others (four out of sixteen) do mainly arithmetic one day and mainly grammar the next, without any very hard and

fast rule. The majority however prefer not to have two things on hand at once. They work at one thing entirely for a certain amount of time, sometimes for a month on end. Then, when they have attained some proficiency, they turn their energies to something else. If a group of children is working, say at French, for a month, we find that when they are tired at the end of a morning they change over to work out a mathematical problem that they know or they play some number game—which does not require any effort, and yet which serves as revision.

The children know that they can help their companions in things that they have learnt thoroughly themselves. The teacher has often no need to give any explanations when a pupil takes up some new material. The child has already watched a more advanced pupil and has got what explanations he needs from him. This is even true of arithmetic and French.

The children know perfectly well the strengths and weaknesses of members of their group. Once when a class teacher was away ill for three weeks, the class begged to be allowed to organize its own work. The children chose out with unerring eye the best pupil in each subject, who took the class in hand, checked the noisy, praised the successful and helped and encouraged the backward. And all accepted either praise or blame with a very good grace.

On the reports sent to the parents there is always a section left blank in which they jot down any observations they may have made of their children at home. They are also sent reports of the regular medical examinations.

Our experience during the last five years has shown us that there is a growing interest in new methods of education in France. There is still need however to satisfy parents that children taught by these methods will not be handicapped in their future studies.

The children who have passed on from this



# SOME SCHOOLS IN FRANCE



Top left : Gardening at Clamart  
Bottom left : Sèvres—Laying the tables  
Top right : Sèvres—the laboratory



L'Enfance Heureuse : Vaucresson

Workshops



school have proved that they are at least equal in intellectual attainment to children who have started their schooling under traditional

methods. As for their general development, it is infinitely more basic, harmonious and integral.

## Maison des Enfants : Sèvres

Mme BERNHEIM

THE *Maison des Enfants* is situated on the heights of Sèvres, facing full south; the school consists of light airy rooms opening on to covered verandas, which allow the children to work in the open air, barefoot and in bathing dresses in fine weather: 6,000 metres of garden hold, in miniature, all that a small child could wish.

We base our work on Montessori principles, using the whole of the material. There are thirty children, ranging from three to twelve years old, divided into four groups, each of which has its own room and its own material. The children are grouped according to their mental age rather than to their age or previous scholarship.

The day begins with singing, and Montessori school work then continues until midday. From 12 to 12.30 there is free play in the garden except for the children who have chosen to lay the tables, and who will then wait on the others. Lunch, vegetarian and otherwise, is served at little tables. Afterwards the children rest for an hour, stretched out on camp-beds warmly covered, always out-of-doors when the weather allows of this. Some of them sleep—and these always have their sleep out—others listen to a story read by a grown-up.

From 2.30 to 4.15 activity abounds. It is in the afternoon that the children do experiments in the laboratory, English, handwork, gymnastics, music, shopping or free play, according to choice and age. One afternoon a week is spent in exploring the surrounding woods, and there are visits to museums, and factories. Tea is prepared by the children

themselves, who much enjoy washing up afterwards. After some more singing there is a discussion in which they all join. The various duties are then chosen for the week. The children say what they want done in the school and they are told something of world events. The day ends up with a Montessori silence lesson.

We do not set any homework and do not follow the official programmes. Yet we do not intend that liberty should be synonymous with disorder, woolgathering and idleness. The more liberty one leaves to the child the more necessary is it for the teacher to know just what he is doing. Therefore, while safeguarding the health and happiness of the older children we take great pains to see that they acquire knowledge. We have begun upon Latin and we work at history and geography. Also we have just built a laboratory for scientific experiment.

We cannot yet say anything very definite about our results. We work and experiment ceaselessly while respecting the great law of order and harmony which is the basis of Madame Montessori's philosophy. And we wait—as she insists—with patience and confidence for the child to 'co-ordinate' himself.

We make great efforts to strengthen the bonds of collaboration between home and school. We encourage parents to visit us and invite their confidence. We send home monthly reports of the health and intellectual progress of the children, and the parents are expected to furnish us similar reports of what they observe of the child in the home. A comparison of the two is often illuminating.



# Nice: An Historical Survey

CLAUDE GILLI

IF we are to believe the legend, Nice was founded by the Phoceans of Massilia (Marseilles) somewhere about the fourth century B.C., and the name of Nice comes from the Greek word *Nike*, meaning Victory. When Massilia became part of the Roman Empire, Nice served as a port to the more important Roman colony of Cemenelum (Cimiez), a new town built on a neighbouring hill above the marshy plain. The ruins of its arena, still extant, show that the town must have had a population of about 12,000 or 15,000 inhabitants.

When the Lombards (Long Beards) in 575 A.D. destroyed Cemenelum, its inhabitants took refuge on a hill by the harbour, called to-day the 'Château', and the town never rose from its ruins. Incorporated in recent years within the city bounds of Nice, it is now one of the fashionable suburbs.

During the early middle ages the history of Nice is obscure. By its geographical position it formed a part of the County of Provence. It had to fight continually against the Saracen pirates who had settled on the peninsula of Saint Hospice (near Beaulieu). Though they were expelled during the tenth century, they still remained a constant danger all along the coast, raiding the seaport towns and carrying away the inhabitants into slavery.

Encouraged by the growth of free cities in Italy and elsewhere, Nice also fought for its independence, but without success. In the fourteenth century Nice was part of the dominions of the unfortunate Queen Joanna I of Naples, Countess of Provence and a member of the House of Anjou (1327-1382). Many legends are still current in the neighbouring mountains concerning this beautiful but unhappy queen. Pursued by her enemies in 1348, she took refuge with her twin children in the castle of Rocca Sparviera and on Christmas Day her two babies were murdered. It is said that she cursed the country with these words:

'O rocca rochhina  
un giou vendra

Que aisse non cantera  
Plus ni gal ni gallina.\*

And to-day the rock where the castle once stood is barren and bare.

After her assassination in 1382, two families disputed her possessions: Louis of Anjou and his son Louis, on the one hand, and Charles III, of Sicily and his son Ladislas on the other. Nice sided with Ladislas but the Angevins were the stronger and it found itself without help when the army of Louis besieged it. Nevertheless it obtained from the Angevin lord the right to choose a protector. Now Count Amedeus VII of Savoy, nicknamed the Red, a descendant of Humbert the White-handed, wanted a harbour. His House had widened its dominions east of the Alps, but there was no sea outlet. On the other hand, Nice, situated between Marseilles and Genoa, could only extend its commercial activity inland, and so by joining with the House of Savoy it served its own economic interests.

Therefore, in 1388, Nice became part of the dominions of the Counts of Savoy, who gave it certain constitutional rights and guarantees. It was practically independent. A governor, it is true, resided in Nice, but the city was governed by three consuls, one chosen by the nobility, one by the traders and one by the fishermen and workers. At a later date it had also a senate of its own. The Counts of Savoy did everything possible to promote the prosperity of their one seaport town. Charles Emmanuel I, in 1626, declared Nice and its near neighbour Villefranche free ports, and gave to all the foreign traders who cared to settle there the right of asylum, and impunity for all past actions. To protect the town a stronghold was built on the hill near the harbour, henceforth known as the Château.

For nearly a century and a half, Nice had peace and prosperity, but the quarrels of Francis I of France and Charles Quint put an end to this happy state of things, and Nice, placed as it was

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\* O treacherous rock, a day will come when here will no more be heard either cock or hen.



on the frontier of the Empire, was the scene of much fighting. In 1543 the French and Turkish fleets\* bombarded and took the town, whilst the populace took refuge in the citadel on the top of the hill. The Turks, under the terrible Barbarossa, were storming one of the bastions when a washerwoman, whose name is supposed to have been Catherine Segurane, rushed up to the battlements, killed one of the Turkish officers and took his standard. The defenders, electrified by her courage, took heart and repelled the enemy. Catherine Segurane remains to this day the most popular figure in the annals of Nice.

After a long period of peace, the Duke of Savoy (the County of Savoy had been raised to a Duchy in 1416) sided with the *Ligue* against Henry of Navarre, and Nice was again a prey to bands of plundering soldiers. Later on, in the seventeenth century, the Duke of Savoy entered into a coalition formed against Louis XIV of France. A French army under Marshal Catinat bombarded Nice and forced it to surrender in 1691. During the War of the Spanish Succession, the Duke of Savoy again sided with the opponents of Louis XIV. Marshal Berwick took Nice in 1706, and this time its fortifications were razed to the ground. Thenceforth Nice was an unfortified town. At the Treaty of Utrecht, the Duke of Savoy was given the Kingdom of Sicily, but in 1720 he exchanged it for the Kingdom of Sardinia, which title was retained by his descendants until 1860.

\* In order to counteract the coalition formed by Germany, Spain, Savoy and England, Francis I formed an alliance with Suleiman the Magnificent. One of the earliest instances of the balance of power.

In the eighteenth century, after a short period of fighting during the War of the Spanish Succession, Nice knew a period of peace. It was about this time that foreign visitors started coming to seek health and sunshine in this corner of the Riviera. The English novelist Smollett has given his name to a street.

At the outbreak of the French Revolution, Nice was invaded by French refugees, but it did not offer safe refuge. It was soon occupied by a



Photo]

Flower Sellers

[C. Delius, Nice



revolutionary army, among whose officers were Captain Bonaparte and Major Masséna, and the whole County was annexed by the French Republic. It remained French all through the reign of Napoleon. The Treaty of Paris in 1814 gave Nice back to Sardinia. In 1815, Napoleon landed at Golfe Juan near Nice on his march to Paris, but Nice itself was not affected by his return.

From 1814 to 1860 the city was fairly calm,

save for a small revolution in 1821 and another in 1847, when Charles Albert took away its privilege of being a free port. For some time past its commercial prosperity had declined as it was no longer the important port of the country, since Genoa and Savone had been given to Sardinia by the Treaty of Paris. Its industries gradually waned and by 1860 the only trade that prospered was that done in olive oil. On the other hand, visitors flocked to its shores in increasing numbers, especially the English and the Russians, to enjoy its unequalled climate.

Finally in 1860, after the help given by the French to the King of Sardinia to enable him to create a united Italy, Nice and Savoy, which should always, geographically speaking, have been French provinces, were ceded to France. But Napoleon III would not accept them without a plebiscite of the people being taken. The figures in Nice alone were 6,810 for the annexation, 11 against; the whole county voted 25,933 for, and 160 against. In the same year, in order not to have a small buffer state between France and Italy, the French Government bought a part of the Principality of Monaco, comprising the two small towns of Roquebrune and Mentone, and so the Principality was completely surrounded by French territory and placed under French protection, after having been completely independent through the course of many centuries.

Since 1860, Nice has developed in a most marvellous manner. In 1800 it numbered 20,000 inhabitants, and in 1860, 40,000. To-day it has reached 237,000, and so becomes the fifth city of France.



Photo]

[J. Giletta, Nice

*Une Rue du Vieux Nice*



## New Education Fellowship—French Section

MADAME HAUSER, who is Secretary-Treasurer of the French Group of the New Education Fellowship, was one of the first of our colleagues in France who realized the potency of education as an instrument for international understanding. As early as 1915 she was already conferring with us over this question, and by 1921 the French Group was definitely established.

That same year, it gave us valuable co-operation in arranging the first International Conference at Calais. The Group was most fortunate in securing the wide knowledge and untiring services of Dr. Adolphe Ferrière, who has edited the review *Pour L'Ere Nouvelle* until this year. He is Director of

the Fellowship in the Latin-speaking world.

The French group has a Bureau in Paris, in the Musée Pédagogique, their offices being definitely lent by the French Government for this purpose. Mademoiselle Flayol, on her retirement from her post as Directrice of the Ecole Normale, became its Honorary Secretary. This bureau is the centre for New Education in the Latin-speaking world, and as such is doing invaluable work. Professor Fauconnet of the Sorbonne is its President, and among the distinguished Frenchmen associated with it are Professor Langevin, Wallon, Bertier, Lapierre, and many others. It is a centre for the unification of new trends in French Education, and is also international in scope.

### La Nouvelle Education

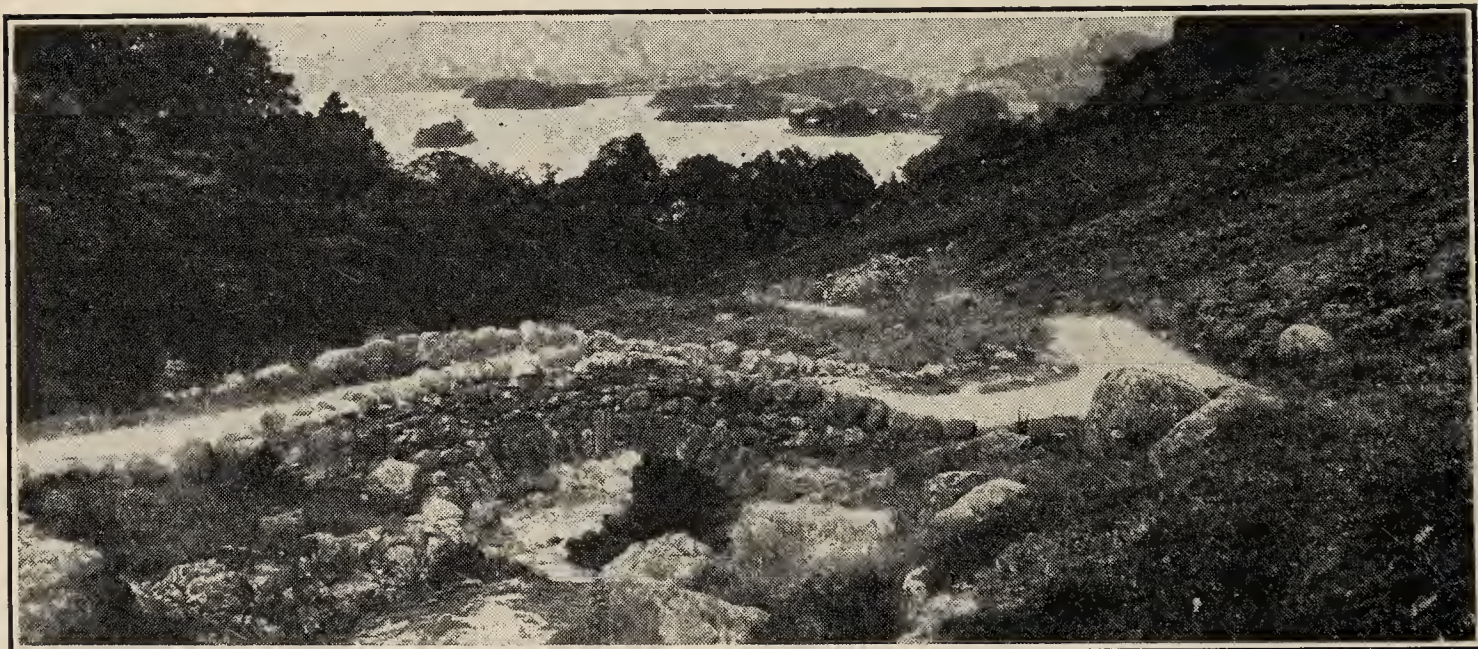
MADAME GUÉRITTE, who was closely connected with the New Ideals in Education Conference Committee in England, felt that there was need for a purely *national* movement towards New Education in France.

She has worked in close co-operation with Monsieur Cousinet, Inspector of Elementary Schools, and originator of the well-known method which bears his name.

The *Nouvelle Education* group has done extremely valuable work in France, both among teachers and parents. It has arranged conferences in various parts of France, created several new schools, and edits an interesting journal, *La Nouvelle Education*.

This group co-operates with the New Education Fellowship in various ways, and is to be largely represented at the Nice Conference.

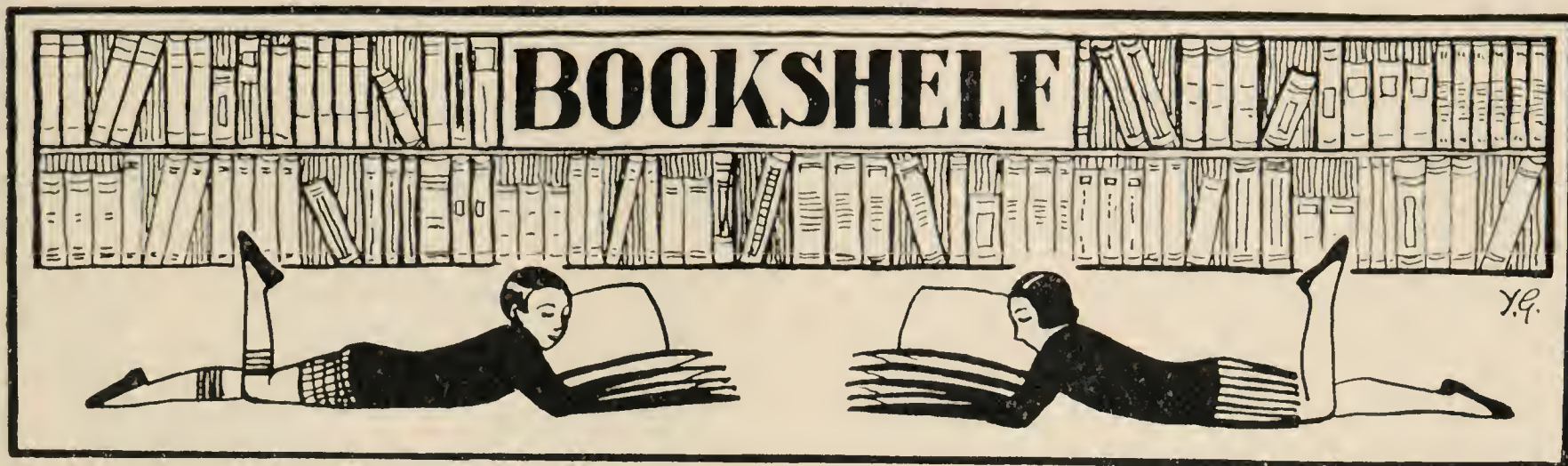
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**Reading in the Activity Program—First Grade.** By Louise Krueger. (Harold Rugg, 425 W. 123rd Street, New York City.)

This book should be a great help to all teachers of little children, in no matter what part of the world they are situated. Many useful hints are given on activity work and it is clearly shown how reading may be made an integral part of the child's varied activities in the classroom.

The author understands the psychology of reading and shows how fundamental reading habits may be developed by the presentation of special techniques of learning.

The book is divided into four parts. Part 1 deals with the psychology of meaning, 'responding to the written symbol with the meaning for which it stands'. Part 2 describes the many and varied ways of helping the child to gain necessary experiences through activities, and the method of developing in the child the 'attitude of reading'. Much practical help is given in this section of the book, along with information as to the use of charts, booklets, blackboard and bulletin board. In Part 3 the need for a library is discussed and full descriptions are given of the Ten Little Reading Books which have been prepared by Louise Krueger for the carrying out of the activity programmes. Emphasis is laid on the need to provide many suitable books for every type of ability, even in the first school year. Part 4 describes *The Workbooks*. These supply material which gives the practice necessary to the establishment of fundamental reading habits. Each Workbook is centred round some activity related to a theme used in one of the Little Reading Books. The child reads in order to be able to do something which interests him. The introduction and use of these Workbooks is very clearly explained.

To all progressive teachers who wish to motivate their teaching of reading I can thoroughly recommend this book, brimful of helpful suggestions, set out in a clear and lucid manner.

**The Technique of Progressive Teaching.** By A. Gordon Melvin. (The John Day Co. \$2.95.)

From America come the best books on education—and the worst. This is one of the best. Books on

methods tend towards one or other of two extremes. Either they are too philosophical and provide little that is useful to the practical teacher, or else they degenerate into a collection of mere teaching wrinkles from which every glimpse of the ideal has departed. Mr. Melvin has steered his course firmly between these two extremes. His book is well planned. First comes a careful study of the basic theories of teaching. This is followed by a very full discussion of the fundamentals of technique. Next the technique of class-management is considered, and afterwards the technique of class-teaching. An interesting series of teaching patterns brings the work to a close. The author has, of course, American schools and organization in view, but for a teacher on this side the adjustments are not difficult to make.

The study of the fundamental theories of teaching is very thoroughly done, but the author is not a mere theorist; the stamp of the experienced practical teacher is clear in every line. Teachers of to-day are apt to be somewhat at a loss in presence of the formidable number of new techniques and teaching plans that compete for their attention. To all such this book should be helpful. Its careful study of basic principles should furnish them with criteria for judging the relative value and importance of the different systems. Teachers have to avoid, on one hand, an unwise conservatism tending to keep them too long in the ancient ways; on the other they have to resist a temptation to be over-enthusiastic about methods that are more specious than practical.

Mr. Melvin is well aware of all this. He reminds us that good teaching, like good school administration, is always experimental, never dogmatic. 'What is more discouraging in history', he asks, 'than the way in which, again and again, the human spirit is freed from its shackles only to be more tightly bound by its very liberators?' This is as true of teaching methods as of any other activity. The letter is apt to kill, the spirit alone gives life. He emphasizes the points of resemblance amongst the newer techniques rather than their differences. He shows what a large amount of ground they occupy in common, but he warns us—and it is a warning much needed—that none of them is final, that at the best they are but tentative solutions of problems of which are only now beginning to emerge.

Neil S. Snodgrass



**Remakers of Mankind.** By Carleton Washburne.  
(The John Day Company, New York.)

This is an account of a trip which Dr. Washburne took around the world, and of the answers he received in all countries to questions that may be thus epitomized: Should the aim of education be to make children good citizens of the order that now exists in your own country, or to create a new social order, or to develop the child's own individuality in the hope that he will then be wiser than we in remaking the social order? Should children put first their country's demands or their personal conscience, and should history be taught from a disinterested view-point or in order to implant certain ideals even at the expense of strict historical accuracy? Should children be allowed to discuss controversial questions and should the teacher try to influence their opinions toward the official viewpoint or his own personal views?

Japan, characterized by the Shinto attitude to the family, emperor and nation, believed in subordinating the individual completely to the will of the collectivity. Internationalism was also upheld but only as a virtue contributory to the honour and prestige of Japan among other countries of the world.

In China, also, nationalism is thought of as a chief ideal. But this is merely in order to prevent advantage being taken of Chinese weakness by foreign nations as in the past. The purpose of building up a new society is as widespread as in Russia. Its outlines are to be those drawn up by Sun Yat-sen, whose picture is in many places worshipped like that of a deity. The nationalism is more hostile to the internationalist spirit, which is looked on as a problem of the present day, than to the individualism which is a deep trait in Chinese character.

In India also nationalism is felt to be necessary in the struggle against western dominion, but not as ultimately desirable. There is to be no biasing of historical facts, for truth is worshipped as something sacred. In this country individualism of thought was more highly valued than in any other visited by Washburne.

Three Arab nations were visited—namely Iraq, Syria and Egypt. In the first, nationalism was partly local and partly Arab; in the second an extremely local spirit, and in the third, the international spirit, prevailed.

The great point noted, however, was that, in contrast to the places earlier visited, there was a great appreciation of the need for vocational efficiency in order to raise their desperately low material standards. There is no conscious attempt to utilize education to perpetuate or introduce a special kind of society.

Turkey 'bids fair soon to be the most western point of Asia intellectually and socially as well as geographically'. The revolution has wiped away traditionalism to an extraordinary extent. For religious fervour has been substituted an enthusiasm for nationalism and capitalism.

The most interesting chapter in the book is that devoted to the visit in Russia. Here, of course, traditions are completely scrapped. There is no geographic nationalism taught. Its substitute, loyalty to the

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proletariat, is carried to an unrivalled extreme, under which all freedom to oppose the existing party organization is unthinkable. The régime, contrary to opinions sometimes held outside, has the enthusiastic support of the entire working class and a general support also among the gregarian population. It is fanatical in nature, refusing to see any possibility of reasonable divergency of view from communist politics on the part of those who sincerely have the welfare of the common people at heart. Some interesting innovations have been introduced. In particular should be mentioned the practice of *polytechnization*, by which each school is attached to some industry, factory, or industrialized farm. Among other advantages of this system may be mentioned that the factory supplies the school with some of its equipment, teachers, and problems for computation, the children on their part imitating in their school the organization of the factory, figuring out whether this product is up to the standard demanded by the Five Year Plan, and shaming or encouraging the workmen according to their achievement. The Young Pioneers have responsibility for morale in schools and camps of young people, and these camps are found effective in the handling of difficult children. The question of mental hygiene is also receiving attention in this country.

Poland, confronted like Turkey with the problem of rebuilding its entire structure since the world war and developing industries among the illiterate mass of peasants, has laid great stress on nationalistic propaganda and opposition to communism. To these it subordinates internationalism and individualism. It is *par excellence* the country in which education is completely under the dominion of the Catholic Church.

Naturally, Germany was found to be very advanced in its educational principles. There was an amount of agreement of prominent thinkers on important questions such as one would have expected only in the highly centralized countries. The viewpoint is broadly cosmopolitan with extreme consideration for the individuality of the child. Ideas of mental hygiene are widely discussed.

The chapter on France will probably bring the greatest surprise to most readers. Chauvinism among the population, and especially the government circles, is not denied, but on the other hand eighty per cent of the actual teachers in the schools belong to a Trade Union international in its organization, and 20,000 to a communist organization. Dr. Washburne found, and I can to some extent confirm this from my own experience, that the French intellectuals are distinctly international in feeling. Some educators also see the need of mental hygiene and there is universal appreciation among the men actually engaged in education that the individual's conscience and right of thinking for himself must be revered.

England is described as in several important respects the complete antithesis of Russia. It absolutely distrusts anything in the nature of an intelligent plan. It has more rigid social distinctions than any other western country. These tend to be perpetuated by the Public School, although opposed by enlightened educators. It is of all countries the most tolerant of

freedom of conscience and of discussion. It regards the national spirit as a thing so much to be taken for granted as not to be worth bothering about. Strange to say, with all its decentralization 'there was more consonance among the views of the English people whom I interviewed than among the views of the people of any other nationality except Japan and Russia'.

Finally, as regards the United States, this is a country of extraordinary inconsistencies in education, as in other things. While national and many State constitutions reflect an extreme individualism, the latter is, in practice, often overthrown by organizations which deny freedom of conscience to teachers. There survives, however, from pre-war days when communication was more difficult, a provincialism of outlook which interferes with internationalism. On the other hand, among the aristocracy of education will be found men of the most mature views of perhaps any country, and mental hygiene especially has received very great attention recently.

The book concludes with a chapter in which Carleton Washburne summarizes his own views on these various questions. Readers of this journal will not need to be told that these are of a broadly enlightened character.

I am inclined to feel that certain concepts involved in the questions, especially that of mental hygiene (which seems to be somewhat gravely confused with some idea of pouring emotional values into the child) could have been more carefully defined. The repetition of the questions threatened to become monotonous, but the author has avoided this danger fairly successfully. What makes the book especially delightful is the fact that each chapter informs us briefly of the recent history of the country visited (who has not felt it quite impossible to make anything of events in China?), and gives short sketches of the personalities who are interviewed. The conflict of views which occurred when councils were assembled is utilized and is often valuable.

Pryns Hopkins, M.A., Ph.D.

**El Doctor Decroly en Colombia.** (150 pp. Published by the Ministry of National Education of the Republic of Colombia at Bogotá, 1932.)

In August, 1925, at the request of M. Agustin Nieto Caballero, Dr. Decroly gave a course of lectures at the Gimnasio Moderno de Bogota. These are published in this volume by a nephew of M. Nieto Caballero, from notes taken during the lectures. There is an excellent preface by M. Nieto Caballero's brother, in which he pays a tribute not only to Dr. Decroly, but also, as is quite fitting, to the fearless founder of the Gimnasio Moderno. Our readers are acquainted with Dr. Decroly's ideas on the development of the child. The most impressive pages of this book are those which deal with the failure of schools as they are to-day, the abuse of textbooks and the necessity of forming the school of the future with a view to the interests and peculiar aptitudes of the child. These are the conditions upon which the national and worldwide success of the school depends. *Ad. Ferrière*



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# International Notes

## FELLOWSHIP NEWS

### Goethe—a Leader towards a New Europe

Dr. Elizabeth Rotten, whom her many friends were delighted to welcome to London recently, gave an interesting address on Goethe on 19th May.

It was Goethe's great pride in life, Dr. Rotten pointed out, to be a world citizen and his aim was to make people conscious of the greatness of their calling as citizens of the world.

There has been practically no progressive movement during the last hundred years—sociological, educational, or religious—that was not anticipated by Goethe. As an old man of eighty he foretold that the nineteenth century would not simply be a continuation of the centuries before. It would be the beginning of a new era, and he further prophesied that this new era would not properly take shape until the following century.

His vision of an international culture was shared by Carlyle, who says in a letter to Goethe, 'Let nations, like individuals, get to know one another, and mutual hatred will give place to mutual helpfulness; and instead of natural enemies, as neighbouring countries are sometimes called, we shall all be natural friends'.



### Meeting of Heads of Private Schools

A meeting of representatives of non-grant-aided Experimental Schools called by the New Education Fellowship was held at the English Speaking Union on 25th May last. Thirty-two Schools were associated with the meeting including such well-known pioneer schools as Abbotsholme, Abinger Hill, Bedales, Bembridge, Bryanston, the Caldecott Community, the Hall School (Weybridge), Maltman's Green, and Summerhill. Most of the schools represented had concurred in the memorandum of the New Education Fellowship presented to the Departmental Committee of the Board on Private Schools.

Lord Allen of Hurtwood was in the Chair. In opening the meeting he said that after studying the Report of the Departmental Committee he had come to the conclusion that they were entitled to approach it in a spirit both of sympathy and vigilant caution—sympathy because the attitude and recommendations of the Report seemed on the whole fair and reasonable, and vigilant caution because they must beware lest the dead hand of bureaucracy should rest on the right of experimentation.

The following resolutions were proposed by Mr. W. B. Curry (Dartington Hall), and seconded by Mr. Lyn Harris (St. Christopher School, Letchworth):—

(1) This meeting welcomes the Report of the Departmental Committee of the Board of Education on Private Schools, and considers that its recommendations, if put into effect in the spirit of the

Report, offer a basis for a satisfactory solution of a difficult problem.

(2) It notes with satisfaction the view of the Committee that the freedom of the non-grant-aided schools 'to pursue novel aims and methods' is 'very valuable to educational progress'. It wishes, however, to stress the point made in the Report that, if this freedom is to be safeguarded, the compulsory inspection enforced should be sympathetic and 'undertaken by inspectors appreciative of Private School aims and circumstances', who carry no power to restrain or prevent the freedom of such schools to continue new methods.

(3) It regrets that in view of the admitted value to education of experimental work in such schools more such work is not being undertaken, and records its opinion that this function of the non-grant-aided school might be fruitfully extended and strengthened, if all schools pursuing new aims and methods and not in receipt of grants from public funds were to unite in a common association in order to pool their experiences and discuss common problems.

After an interesting discussion the resolutions were put to the meeting and carried unanimously.

Mrs. Ensor (Organizing Director of the New Education Fellowship) then proposed that a Committee should be appointed to confer with the New Education Fellowship about the formation within the Fellowship of the association referred to in the last resolution. This was agreed to, and a Committee consisting of the following persons was appointed from among the members of the meeting:—

Lord Allen of Hurtwood, Miss B. Chambers (Maltman's Green), Mr. W. B. Curry (Dartington Hall), Mrs. Ensor, Mr. G. J. K. Harrison (Abinger Hill), Miss Janet Jewson (Hurtwood School), Mr. F. Knight (Friends' Schools), Mr. O. B. Powell (Bedales), Miss Rendel (Caldecott Community) and Mr. Wyatt Rawson (Assistant Director of the New Education Fellowship).



### Evening Reception of the English Section

This meeting was followed by a delightful reception of the English Section at which Lord Allen of Hurtwood and Dr. Maxwell Garnett spoke.

Lord Allen, after thanking the New Education Fellowship for the help and advice it had given him and Lady Allen in the upbringing of their child and in starting their own school, and paying a most welcome tribute to the inspiration that the *New Era* brings to all true educationists, said that in spite of the admittedly depressed state of the world at the moment, he had not given up hope. If an impartial observer from another planet were suddenly to appear in our midst and be shown the world in its present state, it was not likely that he would consider



civilization doomed. The reason for taking hope, lay in the changed attitude of the human mind. The world to-day contained far more people with free minds than ever before in the history of civilization.

Lord Allen recalled how, as a boy, he had been deeply interested in Keir Hardie. Knowing that to mention his name in his home would be to place himself in a very difficult position, he had crept out of the house one night to go to hear Keir Hardie speak in the East End of London. He realized that this kind of thing could still happen in a great many homes in England but in far fewer than formerly. The War had established the right of human beings to think for themselves.

The technique of human thinking was being tremendously affected by broadcasting. Such bodies as the British Broadcasting Corporation were not permitted to have only one point of view. Here was an extremely powerful state corporation making it necessary and desirable to state that there is more than one side to truth. All over the country men and women were learning to use their minds effectively in debate and discussion, and that was what mattered most.

From looking at history books the impartial observer might be led to suppose that civilization was one long series of wars and superstitions, but he would probably change his opinion were he taken to Geneva to see the representatives of fifty nations struggling to solve amicably the problems of disarmament and economic stability. He would take hope for the future when he witnessed the endeavours being made on behalf of mankind to clear up the chaos of the present.



Dr. Maxwell Garnett followed. He said there were three major international problems needing solution to-day, Disarmament, Economic Distress, and the Far Eastern Question. The solution of these problems depended ultimately upon public opinion in all lands. At the present time lack of a World Outlook among ordinary people made the task of statesmen and politicians extremely difficult. One of the most pressing needs of civilization was for children to be given such a World Outlook both at home and in school. This was one of the most important ways of promoting the peace of nations.



#### HOME AND SCHOOL COUNCIL

The Home and School Council held a very successful annual meeting in London on Monday, 30th May. Their President, Miss Ishbel MacDonald, regretted her inability to be present and Dr. Yeaxlee took the Chair in her place.

Mr. Henshall, President of the National Union of Teachers, spoke first and gave a very interesting account of the growing cordiality between home and school. He welcomed the fact that the schools realize more and more that their duty is to equip the children for the duties of adult life. The girls are now taught

a good deal of domestic hygiene, infant care and mothercraft. It is hoped that this movement will spread and that the Nursery Schools will come to form not only true centres of parent education but also laboratories in which growing girls can learn by practical experience what is necessary both for the physical and psychological care of the young child.

Dr. Moodie, of the Child Guidance Clinic, followed Mr. Henshall. He began by saying that 70 per cent of the first 1,000 children referred to the Clinic because they had 'got into trouble' were found to be doing themselves less than justice in their school work. This means that any conscientious schoolmaster should be able to spot at least 70 per cent of the mal-adjusted among his pupils, and by referring these to a Clinic should be able to have their inner conflicts resolved before these children became social problems.

Dr. Moodie next said that too often the child has to try to attain standards set by the teacher, those set by the parent, those set by his playmates and last, but by no means least, those set by himself, and that these standards are often widely divergent. It is obvious that unless parents and teachers can get together and discuss a common standard of behaviour the child is forced to be a sort of chameleon and is under great stress and strain in the process.

He pointed out that when the parent criticizes his child it is usually because he is disappointed in the child's attainments. Most parents are extremely ambitious for their children and often the more unsuccessful the parent the higher his ideal for his child.

Dr. Moodie said in conclusion that he was often struck by the confident and friendly attitude of the parents towards the teachers in his own district. Over and over again when he advised them to do something they reply: 'Oh, I couldn't do that without going to see Mr. So-and-so', the local headmaster.

Dr. Crowley, Chief Medical Officer of Health to the Board of Education, said that as an outsider he often felt compassion for teachers and for the bewildering series of changes to which they were having to adapt themselves. He admitted that the school doctor is a part of this disturbing element of change. His work demands co-operation between parent and teacher so that though it imposes new duties on the latter it also affords him valuable opportunities of getting to know something of the home conditions of his pupils.

In the beginning the school doctor was expected to diagnose and treat the more gross conditions of ill-health. His duty is now not only to prevent disease but to teach an active or positive attitude towards health. He is concerned with the feeding, resting, clothing and sleeping conditions of the child. The doctor is the leader of a team consisting of parent, teacher and child. But this team must concern itself with more than the physical health of the children, it must be a nucleus of parental education.

It is the teacher's duty to help forward parental education and child study, so that what he is doing for the children may not be undone in the home and, so that the parents and teachers together may help the child to make the very most of his powers.



## OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST

## League of Nations Committee for Moral Disarmament

## Education

We should like to direct our readers' attention to an important proposal laid before the Committee on Moral Disarmament of the Political Commission of the Disarmament Conference by Mrs. Corbett Ashby on behalf of the United Kingdom delegation.

1. (*Elementary Education*)

- (a) That a place be secured in the programme of elementary schools for teaching aimed at instilling a better knowledge and comprehension of foreign peoples.
- (b) That the teaching of elementary economics be linked with the teaching of history and geography so that in these three subjects children should learn the definite contributions

made not only by their own but by other countries to the cultural and material wealth of the world so as to show their mutual interdependence.

- (c) That Governments or educational associations be requested to exchange posters, free from political propaganda, illustrating their industries, occupations and scenery.
2. That no training of a military character either of formation or drill be given to children or young people under the age of conscription or of voluntary enlistment.

Insufficient notice has been taken of this valuable memorandum, which included a specific proposal for the abolition of training of a military character for children or young people under the age of conscription or voluntary enlistment. We understand that the British Government has now withdrawn the memorandum.

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# THE NEW ERA

## IN HOME AND SCHOOL

*A Monthly Magazine for Parents and Teachers*

Entered as second class matter, September 23rd, 1930, at the Post Office at  
New York, N.Y., under the Act of March 3rd, 1878 (Sec. 397. P.L. & R.)

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*Vol. 13, No. 8*

*6d. (8d. post free); 25 ¢ (35 ¢ post free)*

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SEPTEMBER 1932

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*Drawn by a 12-year-old pupil of Mr. Arthur Lismer at the Art Gallery of Toronto*

ART — THE COMMON DENOMINATOR



# THE NEW ERA

## IN HOME AND SCHOOL

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### Outlook Tower

THE Nice Conference is upon us, engulfing us all to such an extent that it is difficult to give any coherent account of our activities. This Sixth World Conference has certainly surpassed all others, both in the quality of the lectures and in the way in which members have faced up to difficulties and sought their solution.

*Education and the Crisis* As Sir Norman Angell says in 'Foreign Affairs' (6th August, Supplement to *Time and Tide*): 'There is taking place at this moment at Nice a Conference which might have results that affect our international problems more fundamentally than (though not so immediately as) the results of any of the other many international conferences now proceeding, whether in Canada, the Far East or in Switzerland. For the Nice Conference deals with the preparation of man for the new kind of world which his mechanical ingenuity has brought into being these last sixty or seventy years.'

There are in Nice the representatives of fifty-two different countries, most of which are struggling in the grip of bewildering difficulties which affect in a very personal way the livelihood and employment of every citizen. The majority of our members are practical educationists—parents, teachers, and social workers—who are barred by economic stringencies from doing their material best for the children, many of whom come from homes overshadowed by acute anxieties and want.

Thus the background of the Conference is sombre. One feels that there are unknown difficulties ahead of all its members, which will call for unknown adaptations and courage in facing them. And the result of this is a quickened

sense of fellowship and a more insistent urge to work.

*A Conference of Workers* There is no doubt about it—this is a conference of workers. The sun and sea are lovely. One feels both mind and body expand and grow more generous and full of life under the hot serenity of these sunny days and perfect evenings. We have had two long excursions into the surrounding country and several delightful fêtes arranged by the Municipality of Nice—whom we should like to thank again for their charming hospitality and for the unforgettable memories of this southern life which we shall all carry away with us.

Yet all this has been only the setting for stern work. The mornings have been given up entirely either to lectures and discussions on the work of the sections or to one or more of the courses.

The sections, of which there are ten, include such diverse subjects as Culture and Vocational Training, Education for Leisure at School and Afterwards, the Training of Teachers, the Nursery School, etc.

*The Commissions—A Constructive Innovation* In addition to these, some of the most constructive work of the Conference has been done by a series of Commissions, each consisting of a group of world experts, who have met to thresh out the problems of Teacher Training, Examinations, Trends in Educational Psychology and Curriculum Reform. In these Commissions the men who are working on each problem in their own countries feel that they have found a substantial meeting-place in the New Education Fellowship. They are proposing to continue the



co-operation initiated here and to publish from time to time reports of their work and progress.

Another practical outcome of the Conference has been the formation of an International Association of Experimental Schools. This, too, should be a progressively useful body, giving much mutual help and stimulus to its members.

*The Courses* The Courses seem to be one of the most popular elements in the Conference. They are varied and very practical. Most have formed themselves into informal study-groups, with the lecturer as a very well-informed and experienced leader. Since each member has only time to follow two out of a possible nineteen or twenty courses, there were great heartburnings at first as to which should be chosen. Most people soon felt convinced that, either by good luck or by good management, they had hit on just what they needed, and I have been solemnly assured—by different people of course—that every single one of them is 'the best going'.

As regards the outstanding personalities of the Conference, it is difficult to pick out any names among so many. We are particularly glad to number among them a large contingent from the Far East. There are representatives from India, China, and Japan, and their contribution has been invaluable. We hope that they feel they have gained as much as they have given.

*Outstanding Personalities* Apart from these we must mention the Ministers of Public Instruction of France and Belgium, both of whom honoured us with their presence. The former, Monsieur de Monzies, came from Paris to Nice, in spite of the harassing and difficult duties of a minister in these days, and addressed one big evening meeting, as well as taking the chair for our opening session the following morning. His welcome to the educationalists of many nations, his tribute to our work for the peaceful reconstruction of the world, his cordial hailing of Dr. Becker and the German scholars, and his plea for the abolition of all cultural boundaries—all showed that his presence betokened sympathy, and we felt grateful.

Professor Paul Langevin, our President, and

Professors Becker and Bovet, our Vice-Presidents, have contributed to our meetings not only the peculiar qualities of mind of their respective countries but also the heightened sense of world-needs of true internationalists.

#### *Acknowledgments and Thanks*

We should like to thank all our lecturers and course leaders, who have given their services voluntarily, and who have come, many of them from far distant countries, to throw all their knowledge and experience into the work we have in hand. And we should like to thank all our workers, who have deprived themselves of listening to lectures and have worked tirelessly at selling memoranda, collecting tickets, answering inquiries. It is a great tribute to the spirit of the Fellowship that people should have come, many of them after a hard term's work, and thrown themselves into the countless routine jobs that any big Conference involves because they wanted the whole thing to run as smoothly as possible, with a minimum drain upon the Fellowship purse.

We should also like to thank Dr. Harold Rugg, whose recent journey to the Far East brought many fresh and stimulating sidelights to bear upon the main theme of the Conference.

Not only did he take part in the Course on American Trends, but he led the Commission on Curriculum Reform and Social Studies, which seems likely to prove one of the most valuable contributions to the Conference. It was also upon his initiative and under his chairmanship that a number of the leaders of education came together in several informal meetings to discuss the emphasis and values that have come most persistently before us during this fortnight.

#### *Emphasis and Values*

It is natural that the representatives of fifty-two nations of various cultures and divergent points of view could have come to no formal unanimity as to the rôle of Education in social reconstruction. Though it was recognized that educators cannot but face the main social issues of the day and desire to solve them, two main streams of thought emerged: one that leaders should have a definite programme for social reconstruction and use education as a means of carrying it out; the second that no adult has the



right to *impose* his beliefs on the rising generation. But we reached the only essential basis of agreement for modern educators: that children should be allowed to develop freely, to be socially adjusted, and to have presented to them social material in such a form that they may be aware of conditions in the world about them and trained to think for themselves and thus to evolve a new society.

Next, emphasis has been laid upon the fact that there are many agents of education outside the schoolroom, chief of these being the family and the everyday world. Under this heading would also come the workshop, the cinema, the radio, and other mechanical aids that are actually being introduced into the schoolroom.

All our thinking has underlined the fact that hitherto the school has been widely divorced from life and has given no real understanding of the world we live in. There is a general resolve that this shall be changed and that the school shall give both experience in social living and as clear an idea as possible of the greater world. It is agreed that schooling should contain less of the academic, and should aim at giving the child familiarity with his own milieu.

Further, we have all come to realize more clearly than ever that ours is a changed and rapidly changing society, and that the citizens of the future must be adaptable and resourceful—sensitive to the needs of society and prepared for bold and co-operative action in meeting them. These qualities can and should be bred in the schoolroom. We have had here admirable expositions of methods of 'learning by doing'. I think that many teachers will go back fired by new ideas. They will not, perhaps, adopt the formulæ of any particular method, but they will have realized new and practical ways of ensuring a child-centred world.

#### *Tabulating Points of Agreement and Difference*

There was so much agreement on what education should

do and the points on which there were differences of opinion were so stimulating and vital that we are publishing an article on these informal discussions, written by Dr. Rugg. We feel that this summary, while binding the New Education Fellowship to no definite

programme, should act as a stimulating basis of discussion to many groups and sections.

#### *The Arts and Exhibitions*

One cannot omit from a survey of the Conference all mention of the vital and illuminating Courses on the teaching of music, dancing, and design. These have given many people fresh light upon the creative faculties of the child and how they may best be evoked. But we hope to deal fully in our December issue with this aspect of education, both for personal integrity and for leisure.

Another point that must be noted is the admirable collection of exhibits that has been sent in by the schools from all parts. Here we have seen line drawings from Japan, carpentry from Latvia, posters from Austria, lace and tapestry from Poland, and excellent examples of craft—woodwork, book-binding, metal-work, painting, from all over the world—most of them bearing the stamp both of the fresh creativeness of children and of national traditions in the older crafts.

#### *Diversity of Cultures*

This links on to something that has appeared more saliently than usual at the Conference: the diversity of the methods and content of education in different countries. There is no doubt about it. Education does and should reflect the cultural traditions and needs of every nation. This makes any imposition of culture by one country upon another an impertinence, and a very damaging one at that.

And yet, side by side with this, there is no doubt that international understanding in education is a basic necessity. Professor Henri Piéron even claims that, by a gradual process of acquaintance with widely divergent cultures, we may achieve a synthesis of human values—as we are already achieving a synthesis of human knowledge—and that there may emerge a truly human way of thinking and feeling that is neither of the East nor of the West.

#### *The Value of the Individual*

This striving for understanding of other nations I regard as the mainspring, the quintessence, of our work. And the force of the movement lies



in every individual member. For the movement is primarily one of individuals, and it must, therefore, stand or fall by the capacity of each individual member to rise above those barriers that separate human beings from each other.

To me it seems clear that the undoubted leadership of the new community of nations must lie in the hands of the intellectuals—that leadership in the big sense must study world conditions and be clear as to the general lines of progress.

*The Fellowship—  
an Open Forum* But the Fellowship itself cannot formulate any particular body of principles, for it must at all cost maintain the movement as an open forum, in which people of different and even divergent views—Catholics and Protestants, Socialists and Conservatives, Communists and Fascists—can come together to discuss their practical solutions for the sickness of the world.

The one great factor demanded of every Fellowship member is a spirit of tolerance, a desire to understand the other man's point of view, and respect for all sincere effort. It is this attitude that has made it possible at a time of world crisis for 1,800 delegates to meet in a

spirit of harmony and, without acrimony, to make a real attempt to understand.

Within the Fellowship there can and should be different groups, formed to work out specific forms of reconstruction. But the movement as a whole must preserve that which has ever distinguished it: a flexibility that will enable it to keep on growing, guided by a group of men and women who are practical idealists and who try to preserve a balanced point of view and a scientific attitude.

The Fellowship must seek to sift and evaluate trends in philosophy and practice, and to pool the results of experiment and research.

Thus the Fellowship must ever be a movement of individuals, who will find within it a practical field in which to grow themselves. Every educator has at his door a sphere of influence. He can help forward world adjustment just in so far as he is himself adjusted to life. If the individual is inspired he will influence his circle to the extent of his own inspiration.

The need of the world is great. Throughout the ages, those who have offered themselves freely have been used for the working out of ends greater than they knew. And thus, by dedicating ourselves, we may do our part in leading the world into a new social order.



Central group left to right: Mr. Zilliacus, M. Médecin, M. de Monzies, Mrs. Ensor, Mr. Rawson, Professor Piéron, Dr. Becker, Mme. Hauser.



# The Measure of the New Education

## As shown by the Sixth World Conference

HAROLD RUGG

*We are very grateful to Dr. Rugg for collecting this valuable material which expresses the opinions of a group assembled at the Conference. The article should stimulate thought. Can the Fellowship as a body have any one plan of social reconstruction which excludes those of divergent views but which might strengthen its contribution to our contemporary problems? This is a vital question and one on which we ask readers to send us in expressions of opinion.—Ed.*

THE Sixth World Conference marks a turning point in the history of the New Education Fellowship. Later events may prove that it also marks an epoch in the history of social regeneration through education. The very theme of the Conference—social reconstruction through educational reconstruction—was indicative of a change in the vision and drive of the Fellowship. It was phrased less directly in the title of the printed programme—*Education for a Changing Society*—but many of the papers given revealed the more definitely reconstructive theme.

For three achievements the Sixth Conference was conspicuous; its recognition of the obligations of the new education to contribute to the building of a world-wide social programme of action; the attempt of conference leaders to discover points of common emphasis upon which could be constructed a platform uniting the teachers of the world; and the work of the various 'commissions' which plunged into the task of: (1) constructing new materials of instruction to be used in the schools of the world; (2) considering the reconstruction of teacher-education institutions; (3) gathering together the materials of a truly eclectic 'psychology' upon which to found a sound educational programme (4) constructing new types of examinations' which will measure the real outcomes of the new education. It is this three-fold achievement of the Sixth Conference that suggests that it may become epoch-making in educational history.

### The Need for a Social Programme in Education

On two facts more than all others one group of leaders in the Conference stood bravely together: first that the new industrial civilization

is chaotic, out of control; that western civilization is really on trial; second, that the schools of the world shall be used to help reconstruct it. From speeches, round table discussions,\* written papers, talks in little groups, rang out concepts which are descriptive of the disordered condition of the nations:

25,000,000 people are out of work in the western world, confronting starvation in the midst of plenty

Our new interdependent world order utterly lacks central control over the production and distribution of basic raw materials, resources and manufactured goods

The grossly unfair division of the world's wealth and income

The needless recurrence of economic depressions due largely to fear and suspicion among interdependent peoples

The repeated failure of international conferences and the probability of recurrence of world wars

The insane setting up of trade barriers around trade-starved peoples

The discontent of minority groups brought within the national boundaries of alien countries

Increasing national hatreds and competitions—economic nationalism

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\*At the close of the first week two meetings were held with approximately fifty leaders of the Conference present, for the purpose of discovering tendencies towards common emphasis and issues of disagreement. The points of this paper are based, therefore, upon the oral contributions made at these meetings, the written contributions of fourteen members, the abstracts of evening lectures, and miscellaneous notes made at the Conference. In the organization of the meetings and the classification and interpretation of written contributions Professor Goodwin B. Watson of Teachers College, Columbia University, collaborated.

It was my hope that out of the Conference might come an important pronouncement—an Educational Manifesto, so to speak. Subsequent events revealed that it was impossible to achieve that at this time, and so I have submitted only my personal interpretation of the Conference.



The control and censorship of freedom of speech, largely in the interests of small dominant economic groups

Wide-spread unhappiness in family life as the latter is changing in every continent

Special privileges of certain races over other races, of certain nations over other nations, of certain classes within nations

Short-sighted selfishness of the owners of the world's wealth in not taxing themselves sufficiently to guarantee every human being a decent living

False standards of competition, winning from your neighbour at all cost

The wide-spread prevalence of an inferior use of leisure time

Unnecessary rush and strain in peoples' lives

The demand for conformity in speech, ideas, dress and other forms of behaviour

Whereas the leaders in economic and political power appear to lack social insight and plans for reconstruction, the leaders in thought lack opportunity for effective action

These characterizations of modern society and the implication that education should be deliberately designed to change it, were received in divers ways by the members of the Conference. Certainly many hundreds rose to them as a challenge to social reconstruction through education. Several hundreds more, perhaps concerned primarily with child development, mental hygiene, or the creative arts, and not with educational sociology, were unimpressed by their persistent importance.

Others, a very small minority of leaders, wished to go much further. These stated bluntly in small group discussions that these characteristics revealed the beginning of the end of our era of private capitalism; that some form of co-operative collectivism must now take its place; and, they added with emphasis, the schools of the world must play a part in bringing it about. I think the great majority of delegates would agree with them that to do so, courageous leadership must appear among educators. We must choose now whether we have definite *social* objectives, or whether we remain as one member put it, in the 'sheltered safety of academic isolation . . . conserving and perpetuating our special privileges, institutions and organizations, and our personal safety in a society which contradicts our principles.'

Certainly there was a division of opinion on this point of view among the leaders at the Congress. While a small group of 'social reconstructionists' was a unit in support of it,

those more directly concerned with the administration of mass schools, their ears tempered to the dicta of political trends, flatly denied it. The New Education Fellowship is not a single-minded group, moving along a clearly marked-out path towards the world-wide spread of a truly 'new' and independent education. As we have grown, we have taken into our fold many points of view, many philosophies, many programmes, many occupational, political, and social interests. In passing therefore it should be noted that there are many persons in the Fellowship who distrust this tendency.

### A Fundamental Issue

Furthermore, the leaders divided sharply into two camps on the method by which schools shall help to bring about social reconstruction. One group—a tiny minority—would create a portrait of an ideal society, as well as an accurate picture of our current one, and would 'teach' it in the schools. This group would deliberately use the curriculum and the method of the schools to indoctrinate a new society.

Another group comprising by far the larger number, while definitely committing themselves to controversial discussion in the schools would use a more objective approach. These would: (1) organize the programme around modern modes of living, problems and controversial issues; (2) present to youth an honest and courageous description of our new civilization, and the economic, political and social trends through which it developed; (3) practice people from infancy to old age in reviewing evidence, drawing conclusions from data, and in discussing proposed alternative solutions. Thus this group would formulate educational goals in terms of the traits of the individual man or woman desired; in terms of 'independent judgment', 'scientific attitude', respect for personality, and the like. They would not build education definitely around consciously thought-out economic, social and political forms. In short they affirmed that we to-day lack the insight necessary to see beyond the veil of tomorrow and to predict surely the outlines of that society which will succeed ours.

### Agreements about Desirable Kinds of Education

While divided on this fundamental issue the



readers of the Conference stood shoulder to shoulder on many important questions.

*First* they agreed: That we of the west have produced a false education, a partial education of words, of books, of the cortex rather than of the whole body; an education built by imitation and imposition from the cultures of other times and other peoples. Two dangers had already appeared from this failure to produce a realistic education—a top-heavy white-collar class and a false hierarchy of social classes.

On one necessary step in educational reconstruction there was concerted emphasis; namely, the use of all the agencies of the community. A *real* education, said the Conference, consists of the actual life of the whole community. Thus, the government of the community, the agriculture, industry and trade, the press and the platform, the movies, the radio, the social organizations, *all* the agencies of community life constitute 'education'. And all the years of life—infancy, childhood, youth, adolescence, youth, maturity, old-age—are to be embraced. Thus education is no longer conceived as a five hour a day, five day a week, forty weeks a year, eight to twelve year 'school'. This note was one of the most important heard.

*Second*: That the supreme goal of education is the development of integral personalities; the production of courageous, effective, happy personal relationships; the preventing or eliminating of anxieties, guilt reactions, conflicts, and the like.

*Third*: That education should train students in scientific thinking, in making their own decisions, avoiding prejudices, criticizing evidence, discounting propaganda and the like.

*Fourth*: That education should build consciously and continuously a tolerant sympathetic understanding of other viewpoints and cultures while stressing the positive values in the culture of its own people.

*Fifth*: That education should take place through the purposeful activity of children, be creative rather than merely absorptive, and should assemble materials and activities in terms of learning needs and real life situations.

*Sixth*: That education should become increasingly effective in building attitudes of the following types:

- (a) Responsibility for carrying on an interdependent world society.
- (b) Expectancy of accelerating change; flexibility of mind.
- (c) Willingness to make the fundamental readjustments demanded by the present situation, not merely temporizing and compromising.
- (d) Acceptance of all races and nations as parts of one mankind; there are no inferior races, no superior races.

While there were agreements on other minor points, these are the major ones. Taken together, they constitute the nucleus of a dynamic programme of educational reconstruction.

### Some Unresolved Issues

On other important questions there was less unity in point of view, but again the work of the Conference served to bring out important questions for future discussions. There was a distressing division over one question: the age-old issue over formal versus informal education: Should the content and procedure of the schools of the world be organized (a) (as they are now) in terms of logical, 'subject-matter' categories, or (b) (as 'new education' would do it) in terms of problems as they appear in the life of individuals and groups.

Exponents of a truly integrated, child-centred, community-centred education are bound closely together in defence of the latter position. The protagonists of administrative compromise, however, still defend the classical—'subject matter-set-out-to-be-learned'—point of view. We should be warned by this spectre of a divided house to think more clearly about the direction in which the Fellowship should develop in the immediate future.

But there were more unresolved issues. For example, to what extent the education of elementary teachers should differ from that of secondary school teachers? Or whether secondary or 'higher' education should itself differ definitely from that of primary and elementary schools? Or whether to produce the best type of internationalism it is necessary to develop national and community loyalties? Or whether educational workers should definitely align themselves with political parties?

### A Focus of Educational Reconstruction

But I am convinced that the greatest contribution of the Conference was not in the fine



speeches about social reconstruction, nor in the discovery of intellectual agreements and disagreements. Much more important is the fact that the Conference provided the machinery for vigorously *doing something about the contemporary situation*. These 'new' educators have set to work actually to rebuild education. Through several small commissions definite reconstruction work was launched.

Consider, for example, the work of the international commission on the reconstruction of the curriculum. These thirty-odd leaders from ten nations have bound themselves together to prepare new materials of instruction and introduce these into the schools of their countries. This is truly revolutionary—and basic to social reconstruction. For it is through new materials of instruction that teachers as well as youth can be informed concerning the new society. It is through new materials of instruction that the attitude of teachers as well as young people can be moulded. It is through new materials of instruction that the reorganization of the curriculum can be most effectively brought about. It is through new materials that teachers, habituated to the narrow disciplinary psychology and method, can be brought to a concrete appreciation of the new psychology and philosophy of the active school.

And from the standpoint of social reconstruction these new materials of instruction will constitute nothing less than a new description of society. Years of experimentation have taught us that the first step in the building of a dynamic social programme of action is the preparation and introduction into the schools of the world of a sound description of our new civilization. The existing content of the school programme as revealed in the academic subjects of geography, history, civics, economics, constitutes an exceedingly partial account of the economic social and political world.

What is needed is an honest, courageous, intelligent and intelligible description, a description which will be organized on the basic concepts of the new social order, a description built around the problems and issues of contemporary society, a description which both in content and in form will be provocative of thought; a description which takes as its point of departure the problems of the contemporary

world in which the young people are living—their own individual problems as well as the problems of the adult groups about them.

It is to do this very thing that the curriculum commission is actively making outlines, syllabi and other teachers' guides dealing with international and domestic problems of the contemporary world; topics for student research; bibliographies in several languages, and the like. Totally new kinds of books are being prepared in several countries—libraries of true understanding of the new civilization.

Similarly, the Teacher Training Commission effected a permanent organization at the Nice Conference, bringing together some forty leaders in teacher education from a dozen countries. In four prolonged sessions the trends toward a new and more vital type of preparation of educational worker were brought out. But with them emerged sharp differences of view. Again the formalists, the 'subject-matter' group opposed the more thoroughly 'student-centred' group. The exchange of view was vigorous and the issue sharply defined, but whether new points of view were created it is impossible to determine.

A third working commission emerged from the Conference—that on 'psychologies' and education. It was decided to assemble in volumes for teachers the chief contributions to education of the concepts and techniques of each of the leading psychological points of view. Finally, although no report is at hand of their work, we note that the commission on examinations and the commission on international understanding are actively continuing their work.

Looking back, then, at the Sixth World Conference I find much about which to be encouraged: frank recognition of the responsibility for educators to help build a world programme of social action; the discovery of tendencies toward common emphasis with respect to the content and method of the new education; and renewed impetus to the vigorous rebuilding of education.

But, more than at any previous conference, we showed signs of confusion of purpose and divided allegiance. In retrospect the Conference warns us that we cannot become an effective force in world affairs unless we define our position and programme bravely and clearly.



# Changing Culture

## MONSIEUR DE MONZIES:

NOT EVERY NATION HAS REACHED THE SAME STAGE in its attitude to education for internationalism. Let us, therefore, work together in an effort to reach a common point of view.

I find myself turning naturally towards my friend Mr. Becker, whom I first met in September, 1925, when he was Minister of Education for Prussia. We were just on the eve of Locarno, and no one knew quite what it was to bring forth. I was the first French Minister to set foot in Berlin for fifty years. We both had misgivings about our meeting, yet we overcame our mutual diffidence.

We induced the men of learning and of letters in both our countries to meet. We managed by our friendly co-operation to do away with intellectual boycotting between France and Germany.

Since then many difficulties have arisen between our two countries. Yet nothing has been able to destroy or even to disturb the fellowship of minds which resulted from our efforts then. The contact established between French science and German science has stood firm in spite of political or economic misunderstanding. Let us remember proudly this result—the abolition of warfare of the mind. This is no empty phrase. There can be no material disarmament without moral disarmament.

THIS PROBLEM OF MORAL DISARMAMENT HAS latterly been tackled at Geneva. The French delegate there declared that in order to make peace assured we must prepare men's minds for at least a modicum of objective thinking. All the great achievements of men begin and end with the spirit. It may seem strange for a French

Minister of Education to declare that the things of the spirit are all-powerful. For in France we have had a long struggle to establish a purely lay education.

What is the essence of lay education? It does not mean a declaration of war against priests and religion. It means teaching children from the beginning to cultivate an objective way of looking at life.

THE CHILDREN OF THE WORLD MUST LEARN THE actual, the often brutal, facts of history. In connection with this the committee on Moral Disarmament at Geneva is proposing to choose a certain number of scholars who will compile, for the use of all the children of the world, objective history books which by their very impartiality will wound no national feelings. When this was first suggested it was ridiculed and dropped. At last it has been given serious consideration, but even now the Geneva Committee has reserved its decision.

Professor Langevin is advocating a scientific basis for world culture, because he sees in the scientific spirit the great unifier. There is already a popular demand for scientific knowledge. England, Soviet Russia, Greece, and Italy, are engaged upon the compiling of great encyclopædias. France will in the near future set about the same task. The French state will take up again the work which Voltaire and Diderot, at the example of the Englishman Chambers, first undertook in France in 1751.

WE MUST ALL GET AWAY FROM THE SPECIOUS philosophy of humanitarianism and see to it that our daily thoughts and actions are

*The theme of the Sixth World Conference of the New Education Fellowship was "Education and Changing Society," and many of the basic lectures have dealt with our changing conceptions of culture. In this article we have strung together extracts from the papers of the French Minister of Education (M. de Monzies), M. Langevin, M. Piéron, and Mr. Goodwin Watson, without preamble, and without any attempt to link them up, because, short as they are, we feel that they indicate how some of the ablest minds of our day envisage changing cultural values.*





*Conference Headquarters: the Lycée du Parc Impérial*



*Left to right: The Minister of Public Instruction, the Prefet des Alpes Maritimes and the Mayor of Nice*

*Below: The Mayor of Nice, M. Médecin, at the bookstall*





humane, and that our minds and spirits are disarmed.

So we shall show the justice of the saying of Montaigne, a Frenchman whose philosophy outstripped all temporary setbacks and disappointments: 'THE HUMAN SPIRIT IS A GREAT WORKER OF MIRACLES.'

## PROFESSOR LANGEVIN:

CULTURE WAS ONCE CONSIDERED TO BE A clothing of the spirit, a brilliant and superficial varnish, acquired in youth so as to enable man to make pertinent comment on his experience of life and also to succeed in the world, thanks to his mainly verbal knowledge of the great names of history, literature and art. This point of view has changed sensibly of late. We now regard culture as an initiation into the various forms of human activity which not only enables a man to succeed in his own profession, but also puts him into close touch with other men.

Regarded in this way culture is a dynamic force, for it assures a continuous sharing in activities other than those demanded by a man's profession. Individual culture is also dynamic because it enables a man to continue his process of learning. It is a preparation, an initiation, into communion with human progress, and it enables a man to participate as completely as possible in the spiritual life of humanity.

WE OF THE WEST HAVE NOT YET RESOLVED what we call in France *le problème des humanités modernes*, the problem of a true preparation for life, which will put man in contact both with men and things. Hitherto we have allowed a difference between ethical training and technical training, between initiation into things of the spirit and things of the earth. We have not yet succeeded in realizing a culture which is a harmonious synthesis of these two aspects. We have not created a culture which is both humane and modern, adapted to the needs of modern life.

This stumbling-block in the realm of education, this conflict between the two aspects of culture, has, I believe, been the greatest cause of our present world crisis, a crisis which is both economic and ethical. The lack of a unity of culture has enabled scientific and technical

development to pursue their course independently of moral development. And this very independence has caused the conflict from which we are suffering to-day. Roughly speaking, I should say that justice to-day lags far behind technical achievement.

INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE WHICH, LIKE ALL justice, all liberty, all peace, is a creation of man's, is undoubtedly less highly developed than are the international means of destruction. This is a particularly shocking example of our lack of an integral culture. In the same way the development of machinery is far in advance of our methods of distributing the output of the machines. And this crisis of distribution is at the basis of the crisis of social justice from which the world is suffering.

I am going to propose a means of achieving this unity of culture in need of which we stand.

YOU WILL PERHAPS FORGIVE ME IF AS A SCIENTIST I seek the remedy in a wider employment of science, not of its results but of its spirit. I am pleading, of course, for science conceived as a general process by which the spirit of man has adapted itself to reality, not for the dead science of technical results.

We believed for long centuries that there existed matter and spirit, and that the nature of the spirit was pre-determined according to rigid categories. Since scientific effort has been understood as an effort to construct our understanding of the world—that is, for the last thirty years—we have understood that there is no rigid framework, that spirit is a living thing like all manifestations of life.

THE FUNCTION OF THE SPIRIT OR MIND OF MAN is to ask ceaseless questions of Nature and listen attentively to her answers. She never refuses to reply and only talks in riddles when the questions that we ask are ill-put. It is the task of the mind to register these answers, to modify *itself* if necessary, so as to make an effort to ask of nature clear questions and to get from her effective answers.

And I conceive that in this task we may find the great meeting-place, the great unifier of the minds of men.



## PROFESSOR PIERON :

. . . I think that one should distinguish between three forms of culture.

FIRST THERE IS A BASIC CULTURE WHICH IS fundamental to all human activity; for man, unlike the insects, is not endowed at birth with the inherited powers and instincts of foregoing generations. He must acquire the instruments that have been worked out by his forebears and in this acquisition there lies a basic culture.

He must learn to talk, to read, to write, to count, and to use the aids to economy of effort in thinking; for, since the number of necessary skills and amount of knowledge is growing, we must be on our guard against unnecessary acquisition, and must not overload the memory.

Since the printing press exists it is obviously useful for the child to learn to use books, atlases, dictionaries, and all means of reference which will save the memory. An important task of modern education is to teach the child to use such instruments. There is no reason why he should not learn to use the calculating machine, tables of logarithms, and the typewriter. These are instruments which may seem to us to-day to be superfluous, but which we cannot ignore in considering the basic culture.

THE OTHER TWO FORMS OF CULTURE ARE professional and general. The former is attained essentially in the interests of the community. Each individual must be enabled to learn a trade, so that he may serve his fellows. We are nowadays aware that the trade learned by each individual should be that most fitted to his natural gifts, so that his contribution may be the fullest of which he is capable.

In general culture I think one should distinguish two fundamental aspects. General culture endows men with a *common* stock of knowledge. On the other hand, it is an instrument for shaping the individual mind and spirit of man. This general culture gives a sense of values.

I think that one might say that this sort of culture benefits above all the individual. It is in this respect almost the opposite of professional culture. For it enables each individual to benefit by what other men contribute, and have contributed, to the life of the community.

It should allow the individual to enjoy all the marvellous acquisition of the arts, the sciences, and philosophy. No man should remain ignorant of the sources of joy brought us by our painters, sculptors, musicians, scholars, and philosophers.

HAVING DEFINED OUR THREE FORMS OF CULTURE we must ask ourselves what effect our changing world is having upon them. It would seem that it is influencing professional culture and general culture in diametrically opposite ways. Professional training is tending to become more and more specialized, so much so that there is a certain danger of rendering automatic this side of man's activity. To counterbalance this I should like to see military service replaced by civic service, so that even those who intend to undertake purely intellectual work may at a certain stage do manual work for the community. This would do something towards bridging the rift between the different forms of work, but this is looking perhaps too far into the future.

General culture, on the contrary, is tending towards a greater unification, and, as Monsieur Langevin has said, the place of honour in this work of synthesizing culture belongs to science. Next in order of precedence come certain forms of art, especially music and painting, which make a common appeal to the æsthetic sense of all men. We are even witnessing an attempt to unify human apprehension in the study of history which up to now has been so controversial a subject.

General culture must be held as a common heritage of mankind. In all scientific, historical, and artistic knowledge there is nothing that should cause division. This is common ground on which we can unite. And thus far the work of unity seems to be almost accomplished, to the great advantage of the peoples of the world.

BUT THERE IS A REALM IN WHICH THIS UNIFYING process is obviously more difficult—that is, the realm of values. There we have differences greater and more profound. How far can we hope to resolve them? I think that even here we can reach a certain unification. I think that we may evolve a certain common stock of



human values which will hold good for all men. The greatest difficulty evidently lies in unifying the major groups of civilization, among which we find extremely various sets of values. Western civilization is based upon the conquest of nature by man. It is a civilization which wishes to bend the world to the needs of man, to fight and dominate nature.

The great civilizations of Asia, on the contrary, direct themselves towards man himself. They aim at enabling man to accept what nature imposes upon him, to know how to accept suffering, to know how to suppress this lust for conquest and domination which possesses us, to know how to find satisfaction in life in the acceptance of its starkest realities.

May it not be possible in the future to arrive at a certain synthesis of these two points of view? Certainly there is no reason why man should not seek to avoid all avoidable pain and misfortune. I even think that man should fight to diminish such. But he should also realize that his victory can never be complete. Perhaps the moment has arrived when the mentality which enables man to accept suffering, and to conquer it by some modification of his own nature, is a mentality essential to our Western world to-day.

### MR. GOODWIN WATSON :

OUR SOCIETY IS A COMPLEX TRANSITION FROM a fairly unified culture to a different, expanded culture with innumerable new possibilities. We were an agrarian people, we are becoming industrial. We lived in small towns, we are coming into great cities. We stayed in one place, under the supervision of the family and neighbourhood, but we can now move about easily from one part of the world to another and attain an easy anonymity. It is hard for us not to use our new strength foolishly. We grow excited over the trivial and are in danger of making major decisions without any notion of their gravity. We don't understand ourselves because we cannot attain an over-view.

'An old order changeth, yielding place to new.' Both the old culture and the yet unborn culture must be visualized as wholes, if the present is to be seen wisely. All education is mis-education until it becomes unified by understanding of the civilization that has been

and that is to come. Its tiny strivings toward improvement are as random as the acts of Thorndike's cat in the box, until a new educational *Gestalt* is built, in which past and future is in sight of the present.

There are five aspects of the picture of the new culture of which I will now speak.

A CULTURE ADAPTED TO THE MODERN WORLD and to the world which lies long beyond the contemporary, demands first a new relationship between the individual and the group. Briefly summarizing this first aspect; we look towards an increased freedom for the individual.

Groups and institutions, from the least to the greatest, are to exist only as servants of the individual, protecting some against infringement and interference by others and doing the kind of research, publication, and productive work which can very much better be done by the group as a whole. The method of group work when interests clash is not the domination of the majority or the strong man or the elected representative, but is the method of integration, in which each individuality is used to the full in the creation of a new solution more inclusive of good things than the solution originally proposed by any of the contestants.

Probably this means that more of life will be lived in small groups. The important things of life will be decentralized to small groups. Only glorified janitor service will remain for the big groups—states and nations.

THE SECOND ASPECT OF OUR PICTURE SHOWS society moving towards a more genuine equality of opportunity. Of course, such opportunity must include a real chance to know where work is available, to get to the place of work, and to be trained for it. That means to me that in our new civilization we will have available genuinely free vocational training for everyone, fitting him or her for any occupation he or she has the desire and ability to enter. By free training I mean not only tuition, but board and room and necessary clothing, books and travel.

A NEW INTELLIGENT REALISM IN DEALING WITH life is the third thing demanded by the new society. The new culture must be an informed culture. The average citizen will know, as a



matter of course, things which the school-teacher of to-day not only does not know but does not even know how to investigate. Facts, biting facts, and critical insights on vocational opportunities, on goods to be purchased, on national and international relations, on personal health, and personal psychological problems—these must be available to everyone in the coming civilization.

NEW POSSIBILITIES FOR HAPPINESS TAKE FOURTH place in my conception of the new society. We are not at the moment a very happy people. I think it is fair to suppose that all the poverty and race or class discrimination we know would not cause a very large fraction of the suffering, the acute pain and long aching hurts, caused by our failures in the area of love and sex.

The road to the new happiness in love relations, is a road of far more intelligence, far more realism, far more honesty, and far more freedom for individuals to find their own pathway to beauty, than we have so far travelled. I think we can be reasonably sure that no one answer will fit all problems, but that our former slogans: A maximum of opportunity and a

minimum of compulsion for each individual, abolition of sex discrimination in opportunity, and an intelligent critical realism, provide us a much better basis upon which to work out the problems of happiness than humanity has so far been able to try.

FINALLY, THE NEW SOCIETY OFFERS NEW possibilities for growth. This might be considered a part of the fourth but I prefer to include it under a separate heading because I am sure we are moving away from static into changing, creative living. Life is not happy because it has attained something but because it is attaining. The prodigal son left home, says André Gide, not to search for food but for hunger.

Nature fitted us out for emergencies and adventures. The new culture is going to be full of challenging opportunities to try experiments in living. Increase in the number of things one can be and do with oneself means increase in risk and responsibility.

'I sing no governed firmament,  
Cold, ordered, regular.  
I sing the stinging discontent  
Which leaps from star to star.'



*M. de Monzies addressing the opening meeting*



# Disarmament in Education

DR. MARIA MONTESSORI

WE must not think that disarmament need exist only in the social environment of grown-ups. There is another effort at disarmament needed in our world league of educators. By means of education we are trying to resolve very difficult problems both in the life of the child and in the adult community, and I feel that there is grave need for disarmament in this sphere.

## War between Grown-up and Child

It may seem strange to speak of disarmament in education, yet much of the recent research in child psychology has convinced us that there is to-day a state of warfare in education, a war in which the victims are principally—I do not say exclusively—the children. There is war between grown-up and child; between the grown-up who is strong and the child who is weak. The adult is full of ideas, of preconceptions—some of them the legacy of long-past centuries—which do not always illumine the mind and which bring about a struggle between the generations.

It is not an exaggeration to say that the teacher is often the persecutor of the child—an unconscious persecutor, I admit. This war is not confined to the school; it is everywhere, even in the home. Fathers and mothers are strong and the children are weak. Fathers and mothers are dictators, judges from whom there is no possibility of appeal. Everything grown-up people say is right; if the child

disagrees with them he is necessarily wrong.

## A State of Mistrust

We are in a curious state of mind, one whose origins are very remote. We are in a state of mistrust which resembles hatred—that is, the opposite of love.

What, in fact, do we look for in the child? We are almost always on the look-out for his mistakes—not only for those which he *has* made, but also for those which he *may* make. A mother is always nervous about the errors of her children, even the most innocent errors. It is an obsession.

This is why I say that not love but fear or even hatred is at the back of our attitude to children, for a person who loves another finds all the good possible in him—not only obvious but hidden virtues. One might say that a lover has second sight and sees lovely qualities that others fail to note. If love begins to wane, he sees errors in the no-longer-loved, and when love has completely gone, he wonders how he could ever have loved such a person.

Perhaps you will say: 'But what would you have us do? Have you really no fear of ill? Don't you know that human nature contains much evil?' Well, I have not had much chance to ignore the fact—I have heard it said so often. But the child is not bad. He has a natural mission, that of growth and a reaching out to



[Dagmarassmus

Verein Montessori Paedagogik, Berlin





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maturity. The adult and child do not know or understand one another. There is a struggle between them.

To avoid war in international affairs we say we must enable the peoples to know one another. *Hatred engenders precisely the incapacity to understand.* War in the human soul begins at birth, and this struggle is reflected in the relations between the child and the grown-up. This struggle is a prime begetter of error and evil.

#### Steps towards Disarmament

How much misguided handling has been discovered by hygienists, educators, and all those who study the school and the child's life! This is not the place to discuss it, for this work of investigation is the distinguishing feature of modern education. Modern education, in the name of physical and psychic health, wishes to lighten the load laid upon the child's spirit by an over-insistence upon sentiment on the one hand and instruction on the other. This alleviation of the spirit of the child is a true work of disarmament.

As a matter of fact, almost all modern reforms aim at alleviation. That is why we have schools in the open air. Good. That is a step toward disarmament.

In the reform of the Italian schools we have abolished annual examinations. There is only one examination at the end of a course of studies. This, too, is a partial disarmament.

In certain schools all punishments are meted out on Saturday, instead of taking the child unawares at any moment of the week! Even this, I suppose, must be considered as a step towards disarmament.

There are also certain well-known methods by which the child instead of repeating what he has learnt each day has an assignment for the week or month. He studies at his

own pace. Here again is partial disarmament.

But the question of the true reform of education is both more complicated and more simple. It is a question of hate or love. All we need really do is change our fundamental attitude toward the child and love him with a love which has faith in his personality and goodness; which sees not his faults but his virtues, which instead of oppressing him encourages him and sets free.

#### Have Faith in the Child

It is not enough to be well intentioned and perceptive. Love is dynamic. If we love someone we want to do something for him. If we love the child we realize that he has been neglected and forgotten in a world so rich in the superfluity of varied and beautiful things. We must therefore take a new and fuller path, and this will not only make the child happier but will bring an unimagined richness and glory into our own lives.

Thus we come to see that an adequate social environment must be created from the start. Love teaches us to be constructive. Here is something very strange. Love has made us humble, made builders of us. We are like bees who not only collect their honey but build for it



a house of wax. Both the honey and the wax are needful.

This is why we must construct a social environment and many architects are now specializing in the building of houses for children whose needs and tastes are different from ours and who have the right to a house of their own, and to all that is needful for their life and growth.

This is the direction which we must take if we wish to create a new humanity, because the loving child who feels himself loved has a dynamic character. He is a child who works a great deal; who has no fear of effort, and who seeks that discipline which is natural to man and the serenity which is natural to men who live normal lives. The loving child in his maturity will be the new man.

I maintain that it is possible to foresee a new society in which man will be more useful because when he was a child people had faith in him. I also hold that those children who love to work, and who therefore work spontaneously and without fatigue, absorb by the time they are twelve as much as is expected of a child of fifteen.

#### Let Them leave their Narrow Homes

I am going to plead for something that may seem strange to you, but which seems to me not only fine but essential: the child should have a holiday for the three years he has saved. This will coincide with the age of physical development, of puberty. The child whose chief mission should be to develop his own integrated individuality stands at the threshold of adult life.

I should like to see children leave their narrow homes and go into the hills or to the sea, or into the country, where they will be in touch with nature and learn some practical

trade. Here they can meditate and their innate sense of justice and of life will blossom tranquilly under ordered labour and this natural existence. Under such conditions humanity will attain a state of freedom and kindness in which it will sense the answers to many questions which seem to us obscure and difficult.

I can imagine these children returning to their formal studies when they are sixteen, feeling that they understand something of life and have achieved a sense of direction.

'But', you will object, 'when the children grow old they will not always be fresh spiritually; you have too much confidence in human goodness.'

No, I am not over-confident. My experiences have been enough to teach me pessimism; but this is not a vision, it is reality. It is possible that when these children grow old they will no longer be so spiritually fresh, so pure, so dynamic. But they will have this advantage over us, they will have faith in youth. The spirit should be eternally young—and it is the spirit which recognizes the essential goodness of mankind.



*Verein Montessori Paedagogik, Berlin*

[Dagmarassmus





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# Individual Responsibility and the New Society

HELEN PARKHURST



THREE YEARS AGO when this very important Congress met at Elsinore, we were just at the beginning of the great depression now upon us. Then we hoped against hope that the men of genius who in the past had successfully found a way out, would again be equal to the problem, and that *we* the educators, would be left free to work creatively in our own fields.

Now when millions are out of work, and door after door to halls of learning is being closed, we realize as never before that our work cannot be narrowed to the field of intellectual endeavour, but that we must extend our knowledge and apply it, to the end that eventually each individual may be set free to make the *highest use of his own powers*.

WE DEMAND A VERY DIFFERENT TYPE OF SECURITY than before, and we know security is not guaranteed because old demands are satisfied, for once a demand is satisfied, automatically with the satisfaction, we have created a demand for something else. We can no longer sit patiently by; we must take unto ourselves our share of the responsibility for the conflict—the conflict is not in our ideals but in our practices—not in what we think but in what we do, and in this crisis *in what we do not do*. We have criticized leaders, but we have left leadership to

others. Though at one time or another we may have led, we are not now accepting the full responsibility of leading co-operatively.

If we look about, on all sides we see men and women with great potential strength, men and women with both ideas and vision, who are totally incapable of concentrating their strength towards the end that the difficulties confronting us may be solved, either nationally or internationally. It seems to me that one reason for this is that the powers of these individuals have not been properly, or shall I say their powers have been *improperly*, used in a process which may be termed the

wrong kind of education.

All educators appreciate the fact that society is changing; some have accepted the fact that society has changed, but only a few fully appreciate the fact that society will continuously be subject to change.

EDUCATION TO-DAY MUST BE A MORE ORGANIC process than the education given twenty-five years ago. In America, the fourth generation of children growing up to-day are the offspring of the pioneers who made the country a glorious living challenge. There our problem is how to regenerate the pioneer strength. To accomplish this, it will be necessary to place the children,



while in school, especially during the time when they are building their habits, under conditions which are not identical to the conditions faced by their pioneer ancestors, but which in a similar fashion *call for and use* the pioneer strength which is their heritage.

They must participate, they must experience, they must vitally discover new worlds, and most of all, have real opportunity for rediscovering themselves.

What is true of America is true of every other nation to-day. Up to recently the educator has had one fault in common with the business man—he has sought refuge in the past for solutions of every perplexing situation. But the business man has failed, he is no longer a shining example. His plan was expansion, but his expansion has no plan—no safe plan for the future—he had no desire to safeguard society, and our failure will loom equally great if we do not plan for a new world. As Dr. Dewey says, we can no longer look at a pendulum as swinging too much in one direction or another, but we must give the swinging pendulum an entirely new direction. It may be well for us to reflect upon Dr. Dewey, who although well advanced in years is not content merely to proclaim his philosophy but is applying it to-day to the field of human relationships in his present political life.

Once the success of capital seemed to be a great challenge. Schools were run after the fashion and with the efficiency of huge industrial plants.

Leaders of youth who were like gods left



*Toy Junks and Tea for Sale*

Olympus and exchanged security for false hopes and ideals, resulting in insecurity. In that sense, the present crisis is good for our souls because we are stopped before it is too late and saved from ourselves. We must return to Olympus and we will, although it may mean further sacrifice and continued sacrifice.

Regarding the more practical phases of the school itself, we must reorganize it socially if we are to safeguard the children of the future. For is not the school an instrument of change? Although it did not prepare men and women of the past in ways which would enable them to meet this present crisis, because the school was regarded as remote from the realities of life, we must reconstruct it as a vital agency of life and a creative factor in change.

Here I would insist upon three principles as necessary for the preparation of individuals strong enough to remain strong, and worthy in any crisis to accept responsibility in the new world which we cannot entirely conceive.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL MUST PERMIT individuals to be free, sufficiently free to know the cost and meaning of the misuse of freedom; free to become convinced that freedom is not an end in itself but a means which permits one to develop completely, physically, spiritually and intellectually, something for which one is always responsible.

On our part, as guides and councillors, we must regard freedom as an activity in which we must engage in order that the impediments to full living be removed.



*Morning Rice*

Secondly, the school must be socially re-organized so that it is only one of the world's workshops. To do this there must be mingling of individuals on self-set errands, development by exchange of opinion—not a life of textbooks, but a stimulating life of eager human souls seeking a solution to real problems through the interaction of group life on a large scale.

And third, there must be opportunity to learn the sacred use of time. I do not mean time in the sense of Western rush and speed, not time merely as business used it for over-expansion and over-production to the ruin of culture, but time to be distributed wisely—time in which to grow—time for work and time for leisure, time to participate and time to retire,

time looked at as the one thing belonging freely to the individual as a resource to serve the needs of his spiritual nature.

THESE PRINCIPLES WILL RE-CONSTRUCT A NEW school and the result will be new citizens for a new world.

The strength of a nation is said to lie in its children. But just as an individual must be re-enforced and developed completely as an in-

dividual in order to be able to make a contribution, so must each nation be individually developed. An individual's uniqueness lies within himself—so does that of a nation. An individual only succeeds in *failing* when he imitates or competes with his neighbour. That is equally true of nations

*A Chinese Project in a Cleveland School: Out for a Trot*



—a nation may have great material resources and yet fail, because, spiritually weak through competition, she has become untrue to her own culture.

Culture is indigenous in nations and in individuals and the secret of harmony lies not in similarity but in contrast. Contrast appeals, similarity repels.

Picture what would happen if any nation began to prize and develop its own culture, not in splendid isolation, *but fully conscious* of the need of perfection, to the end that she in turn could significantly supply something needed and missing in the world. Think of the interest which would be the outcome of such procedure. Each nation would then point with pride to the achievements of others. Competition would be eliminated. Nations would be glorified by their very difference from one another.

COMPETITION, BOTH BETWEEN NATIONS AND individuals, must go, in the new order. Each must become supreme in his own right if spiritual co-operation is to be possible. The medium of expression for one person may be a particular

idea or plan effecting his release into world citizenship. *Each* will contribute from his own inner life. We must understand such needs, we must satisfy them. If we do, perhaps, one day we may witness that happy spectacle of the nations of the world sitting as a group of brothers at a common table solving the problems of a united world, because each is individually prepared and World Fellowship will result!

No one person holds the key; but, if we who are gathered here from many nations, sharing a common purpose, make and foster a new pattern, we will help to bring peace and harmony and recreate a world, safe for little children!

*[Miss Helen Parkhurst is very well known as the originator of the Dalton Plan. It is not generally understood that she also gives large place to an activity programme in the work at the Children's University.]*

*The illustrations in this article do not come from her own school, but are excellent examples of a very thorough-going Chinese Project carried out in a Cleveland school.]*

## Conference Notes

THERE were just over 1,800 members of the Conference from the following fifty-two countries: Australia, Austria, the Bahamas, Belgium, Brazil, British Guiana, Bulgaria, Canada, China, Colombia, Czecho-Slovakia, Denmark, Ecuador, England, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Guatemala, Holland, Hungary, Iceland, India, Iraq,

Irish Free State, Italy, Japan, Jugo-Slavia, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxemburg, Mexico, New Zealand, Northern Ireland, Northern Rhodesia, Norway, Palestine, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Roumania, Russia, Scotland, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Uruguay, United States, Wales and the West Indies.

### *Impressions of a Japanese Delegate*

AT this Conference I have come to the conclusion that though we may differ in some practical details in the application of an educational method, yet the ideals and truth underlying these are at last showing signs of fundamental similarity.

Communism rules Russia with authority, though it is progressive in putting its ideals into practice. Fascism plays the same rôle in Italy. Both have realized that only through education can a new society be established. But the liberal world, in its true sense, while realizing the importance of education in creating a new social order, must see that this comes from within and is not imposed from without.

In the world of education, there are no visible

border lines to separate one country from another, nor are there fixed authorities to depend upon, except the Truth. To build up this invisible world in unity on the characteristics of each individual and race is far more difficult than to make Russia Communist or to make Italy fascist.

The danger of New Education is, I believe, that of beoming idealistic without a foundation on reality.

It is not sufficient to see our neighbours vaguely as brothers or to act on the assumption that all children are perfect. We must face frankly and tolerantly the imperfections in all mankind, for it is only in this way that we educators can be really influential for good. The motive power behind the educator must not be merely a conception of truth



as expressed by any human philosopher, but must be based on that of the Greater Power which is behind all our human activities.

In order to put into practice the above idea the first step of the New Education Fellowship should be, I believe, the establishment of a department which shall deal specially with the relationship between New Education and religion.

It seemed to me that there were some people who thought the same thing among the members of the Conference.

Secondly, I think that as many permanent committees as possible should be established in the different countries, to be in communication with the headquarters of the Fellowship in London. Moreover, I believe that we World Fellows ought to bear the financial responsibility for maintaining these committees and ought to do this gladly.

I am firmly convinced that this sacrifice should be the first active step in the process of establishing the new society in this world.

Lastly, let me say a word of gratitude for having been so stimulated and happy at the Conference. I often regretted that I was not able to speak any language other than my mother tongue, but in spite

of this handicap I felt frequently that a common language was not necessarily the only means of communication when a common interest prevailed. I want to thank you for giving me the great opportunity of bringing our school to the notice of the world. This Conference has made me realize more fully our great responsibilities as a new society in

the Far East. Peace ought to be the essential spirit of this new society.

I sometimes felt, especially since the difficult situation arose between China and my own country, that I ought to enter into the actual peace movement, though it meant retiring from my beloved school for the time being. But the time I have spent at the Conference has given me a solution of this problem.

I am convinced that I shall be able to realize this ideal by remaining at my school as a mem-

ber of your great movement whose object is the establishment of peace through education.

I wish to thank the organizers of the Conference for the hard work that has brought about its great success, and for their kindness and help to us who have come from so far away.

*Motoko Hani*



*A few of the Japanese delegation*

### *Impressions of a Chinese Delegate*

IT has been a great inspiration to each of us to have participated in this international conference, and to have joined hands with the leaders from fifty-two different nations in an endeavour to solve the problems of the world to-day through education. We have deeply appreciated the genuine goodwill that the Conference members have individually and collectively shown to us, and we feel it an exceedingly great honour to be given this opportunity to express briefly our ideas about this Conference, and about the cause for which we are all working.



*A few of the Chinese Delegation*

We in China have always had immense faith in and reverence for education, because therein lies the hope of the future. The teacher is regarded with the deepest respect and the scholar is honoured as the leader of society, and therefore our responsibility is all the greater.

Dr. Chuang has endeavoured to tell you what we have been trying to do in New Education. China has always been a peace-loving nation, but now more than ever before we are in critical need of the healing balm of the noblest and highest type of internationalism, both in our own country and also



in the other countries of the world. We look towards the educators of the world to join with us in trying to build up an attitude of mutual respect and faith and goodwill, and for each nation to establish for itself a nationalism contributing towards internationalism. China to-day is being reborn politically, socially, economically, industrially and, last but not least, educationally, and we

need from the world sympathy and guidance and patience, and the mutual exchange of opinions and criticism. The task for educators of the world to-day is not easy and, therefore, it is all the more interesting and fascinating and worth while. Let us all work with faith and hope and courage and determination, and endeavour to make the world a better and happier place for the Child and for Mankind.

### *Impressions of an Outsider*

THE commands of a charming but persistent editor compel me to put down my impressions of the Nice Conference before tranquil recollections have enabled me fully to sort out and digest those impressions. I write before the Conference is yet over. If may be, however, that writing thus I shall be able to give a better picture than had I attempted the same task under the shadow of the brooding spirit of an English cathedral.

I approached the Conference in a spirit of criticism, and I have tried to maintain that spirit throughout. It has been sometimes difficult, however, to prevent myself from being carried away, for perhaps the outstanding impression one has gained is of the overflowing enthusiasm of those who have gathered together to discuss their common problems in the light of their varied experiences. It is perhaps a typical characteristic of English educationalists that they are distrustful of what, often, they call 'stunts.' I had been a member of the New Education Fellowship for some years; for some years, too, I had been thinking and working on what I was pleased to consider were progressive lines. But I distrusted many of my fellow-workers. I felt that some of them at least were being led by uncritical enthusiasm along paths which were unsound and fantastic. Now I have met and talked to them. I found those whom I expected to be fanatics, led by a spirit of reasonableness, those whom I expected to pose as priests and priestesses of an educational system, to deviate one jot from which were heresy, charming and human, insisting on the spirit rather than on the letter of their doctrine. Everywhere was enthusiasm, but

enthusiasm tempered by the spirit of criticism and inquiry.

As the Conference progressed there emerged the conception of a single goal reached by different paths. At first clashes were evident. The American conception of education found the European, and especially the French, not in violent, but in distinct, contrast; those insisting on the necessity of the free development of the individual appeared to oppose those who stressed the need of submission to the interests of the community; those who advocated that all education should be built round the experiences of modern life seemed to clash with those who desired to retain, at any rate in part, a more classic form of culture.

It says much for the value of a conference of this kind that before it ended each point of view had been modified, each side had seen that the other had some valuable contributions to make to a full, free and enlightened education.

To say that I have found this Conference interesting would be a profound understatement; it has been one of the most vivid experiences of my life. I am convinced that the New Education Fellowship is not only a valuable means of bringing about international understanding and co-operation, but in its vitality, in the opportunities it gives for the free interchange of ideas, in its reasoned idealism, it can reform and revivify the education of the world.

To-night the Conference ends, and its members will depart to the ends of the earth, but for a short space, against a background of blue water and golden sunshine, has existed the ideal university.

### *Fêtes and Excursions*

THE first occasion on which members of the Conference met as a whole was at the Villa Masséna on the opening night, when the Mayor, M. Médecin, and the Municipality entertained them. Members got to know one another while enjoying the music in the gardens or the champagne and ices in the refreshment room.

Then on Sunday, 31st July, after the speeches of the President, the Mayor of Nice and the French Minister of Education, the members attended a concert in the theatre which they thoroughly enjoyed.

On Wednesday, 3rd August, the first excursion took place. Over 600 members enjoyed a wonderful

run to the Gorges du Loup, through Gourdon, that village perched so high that many wondered whether the cars would ever reach it; on through Grasse and its perfumery, and finally to Cannes. They were conveyed to l'Ile St. Honorat where a Provençal fête was given in their honour. They saw, many for the first time, fife and drum as played in Provence, and the dances and songs of the South. M. Tuby, President of the Académie de Provence, in velvet coat and broad brimmed hat like his master Mistral, directed the singers and dancers, of whom Princess de Luze must receive special mention. In the evening after an excellent dinner offered by the Municipality



to the organizers of the Sixth World Conference, a magnificent water fête and firework display ended a full and happy day.

On Sunday the 7th, a fête was given by the French Section of the N.E.F. in the theatre of the Palais de la Méditerranée. The first part consisted of a very fine demonstration by the Boy and Girl Scouts of Nice under the direction of M. Bertier, President of the Scouts of France, and M. Hauet, the local commissioner. We had camp songs with fine lighting effects and 'Auld Lang Syne' in French. Then songs in the Nice dialect were given in costume and appropriate setting. Among these were *La Bergeissetta* (The Shepherdess), a duet between a shepherdess bewailing the neglect of her lover, and an officer, this same lover unrecognized in his fine clothes, who returns to marry his love; and *Li Begnete* (The Apple Fritters), a lively song of 'cakes and ale' that was encored.

On Tuesday the 9th, the second excursion took place. Six hundred Conference members drove along the Grande Corniche and enjoyed the magnificent views from that height. A stop was made at La Turbie, to see the old Roman monument *Le Trophée d'Auguste*. Another stop was made at San Remo for lunch and the homeward journey was broken at Monaco.

Delightful weather prevailed during the whole of

the time, and I think it may be claimed that the lighter side of the Conference, as seen in fêtes and excursions and talks in cafés, was as productive of friendship and helpful exchange of opinions and experiences as any of our more serious activities.

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### Autumn School of Dramatic Production

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# International Notes

## NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION OF GREAT BRITAIN.

The N.S.A. held its Summer Conference at Reading during the week-end 10th to 13th June. About 100 delegates from all parts of Great Britain came to join other members and friends in Reading itself. Reading has no nursery school as yet, but it has a flourishing branch of the Association, which includes thirty-one private members and no less than eight affiliated bodies.

Mrs. Wynne-Jones (Chairman of the Reading Branch of the N.S.A.) presided at a meeting of welcome on the Friday evening at the Kendrick High School for Girls, at which the civic and educational authorities of the Borough were represented by Alderman Edith Sutton and others, whose warm support of the nursery school movement gave hope and encouragement to the Conference. During the evening Dr. A. B. Howitt, M.P. for Reading Borough, addressed the delegates. He spoke of the serious importance of the Nursery School movement, and declared that it was one of the most effective agencies of preventive medicine in existence. He deplored the ignorance of the general public of the work and possibilities of nursery schools, and urged upon the Association the necessity of seeking far wider publicity for the whole movement than it has as yet attained.

On Saturday morning the Conference assembled at the University, where, after a short address of welcome and encouragement from the Vice-Chancellor, the Conference began its deliberations in good earnest.

The first subject on the programme was 'The Relation of Nursery Schools to other Welfare Organizations'. Miss J. Lowson's opening paper dealt with the need for an inner unification of all forms of child welfare from babyhood onwards, by means of a common ideal or purpose, i.e. the ministering to the whole personality of the child, not his physical health only in babyhood, nor his intellectual advancement only in the infants' school. The nursery school is a link between the health agencies of babyhood on the one hand, and the infants' school on the other. It should be possible to work towards a co-operation that would bring about a unification of spirit and purpose in the various agencies which serve the little child successively from the beginnings of his life.

This paper was followed by a lively discussion, which turned on the relation between the nursery school and day nurseries, nursery classes and wings, and infants' schools. The urgent desirability of securing nursery school education for the children who were recently under the care of the Poor Law was noted. The equal importance of providing the nurture and training of the nursery school for children living in small villages was agreed upon.

Time failed for the desired discussion of Child Guidance Clinics and Infant Welfare Centres. There was, on the whole, an active demand for a closer co-operation between the nursery school and other

child welfare organizations than has yet been achieved.

The afternoon was devoted to a valuable paper read by Mrs. E. Norman, M.A., who gave a detailed account of her observations on an individual child between the ages of two and five.

The Public Meeting was held on Saturday evening, when Dr. Somervell Hastings took the Chair. Dr. Tawney spoke of the deplorable gap between the country's knowledge of education and its practice. The aim of education is to aid growth, to make happy children that they may make a better world. But education must have as foundation the physical nurture of the child, and nursery schools meet the crying need for such nurture. They also supply the (1) environment, (2) social training, and (3) guidance, which body and mind—two different aspects of the same personality—demand. Dr. Tawney stressed the necessity for a much more emphatic demand from educationists themselves for the extension of nursery schools, and maintained that the contention that the nation cannot afford them is unjustifiable.

Miss Margaret Drummond followed Dr. Tawney with an illuminating address on the actual education received by a little child in the rich environment of a nursery school. She emphasized the continuous character of that education and the way in which it provides for every side of the child's nature and development. Finally, through its spirit, the foundations of a true internationalism are laid.

At the end of the meeting a resolution was passed calling on the Government for a forward policy as regards the allocation of grants to nursery schools.

On Sunday afternoon two papers were read and discussed:—

(1) 'Our Vision of an Ideal Nursery School' by Miss Grace Owen.

(2) 'The Child and the Kingdom of God' by Miss E. Ryle. Miss Ryle's paper traced the development of human progress as reflected in the slowly changing attitude towards childhood.

At the close of the meeting Miss Drummond, who was in the Chair, expressed the warm appreciation of the Conference both of the generous hospitality received and of the excellent organization of Miss Ryle and the Reading Branch.

Monday morning was devoted to three interesting visits:—

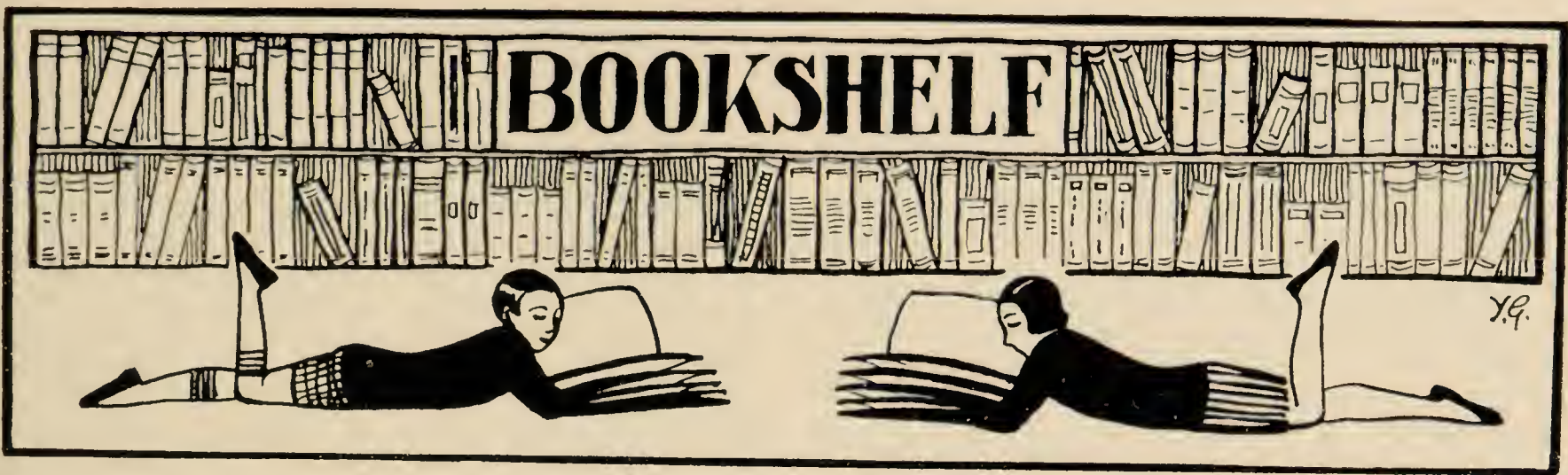
(1) The Experimental Farm of the University of Shinfield ;

(2) Messrs. Sutton's Seed Farm ;

(3) Messrs. Huntley & Palmer's Biscuit Factory.

On Saturday, between the afternoon and evening meetings, the Conference was entertained by cinematograph films showing the work of the Chelsea Nursery School, the Summer Lane Nursery School, Birmingham, and the Bromley Nursery School. In addition the new portable Lantern Slide Film belonging to the N.S.A. was shown. This lantern and film may be borrowed by any member of the Association for propaganda purposes.





**The Value of Vocational Tests as Aids to Choice of Employment.** *Report of Research by E. P. Allen and P. Smith. (City of Birmingham Education Committee. 1s.)*

This report is noteworthy not only for the value and interest of its contents, but also for the fact that it is issued by an Education Committee. It is to be hoped that the example of the Birmingham Committee will be followed elsewhere and that a 'new era' in education will arrive in which organized educational research will receive the recognition it deserves.

Two of the officers of the Birmingham Committee engaged in the Juvenile Employment Department, in the course of their ordinary work of advising school leavers as to choice of employment, investigated the practical value of vocational tests and other methods of observation when applied to this particular kind of work. The inquiry was systematically planned, and the methods of observation were, with some modifications, those adopted in the London experiment of the National Institute of Industrial Psychology. Three hundred and twenty-eight children were examined, psychological tests of abilities were given, visits were paid to homes, and, after employment had been found, note was taken of changes of occupation, of proficiency at work as judged by the employer and the juvenile respectively, and of the reasons given by the latter for his changes of post. This 'follow-up' was continued for two years; not a very long period but sufficient to give data capable of analysis.

The results are rather remarkable and provide striking confirmation of those reported in 1931 by the Institute of Industrial Psychology. Children whose advising was based upon the results of the special vocational examinations were found, in Birmingham, as in London, to be far more satisfactorily placed when the work they were doing was in agreement with the advice than when it differed. Moreover, it was found that the same result could be achieved with a shortened procedure—a result of some importance in itself. The analysis of data are given in tables admirably illustrated by diagrams, and the investigators are to be congratulated on a well-planned and excellently described piece of work. Now that two pioneering investigations have yielded similar results, perhaps the extensive application of the methods will not be long delayed. The report wisely

emphasizes the fact that further work is needed to make the procedure more effective, but its value may now be regarded as established beyond reasonable doubt.

*F. M. Earle*

**The Use of the Self.** *Its Conscious Direction in Relation to Diagnosis, Functioning and the Control of Reaction. F. Matthias Alexander. (Methuen. 6s.)*

In *Man: An Indictment*, Mr. A. M. Ludovici, himself an old pupil of Mr. Alexander, has written '... a sensory experience ... can no more be conveyed by words than can the taste of bacon, or the look of the colour blue, or the sound of middle C on the piano'. This may seem obvious enough in theory, but in practice it proves a formidable stumbling-block to most people taking up the study of Mr. Alexander's work, and it is the great difficulty which has to be faced by anyone writing on this subject. Nevertheless, much has been written, and Mr. Alexander himself has already published two books dealing with the wider aspects of his work. His latest book will probably be looked upon by the general public as the most informative, because in it he tells a straightforward and extremely interesting story of his own personal experience and discoveries.

Mr. Alexander, when a young man, took up dramatic recitation as a profession, and after some years began to have trouble with his throat and vocal cords. He was advised by his doctor to use his voice as little as possible, and to follow certain treatment prescribed. This caused the hoarseness temporarily to disappear, but as soon as work was resumed his voice became as bad as before; which led him to the conclusion that the trouble was caused by something he did when speaking, and observations made with the aid of mirrors showed him that this was indeed the case. He then saw that the act of speaking was invariably accompanied by unnecessary muscular pulls causing the head to be thrown back, and breath to be sucked in; slightly when speaking and in a pronounced way when declaiming.

When he tried to correct this defective functioning he made two more disconcerting but very important discoveries. Firstly, he found that his own sensory appreciation was unreliable, in other words, that he



couldn't tell whether or not he was throwing his head back when speaking unless he looked at himself in the mirror; secondly, he found that even with the help of the mirror the old instinctive subconscious tendency to use the muscles incorrectly when speaking was too strong to inhibit by direct means. How he gradually evolved a technique for correcting these psycho-physical defects, and how his throat trouble gradually disappeared is described in the first two chapters of this book. In the remaining chapters is discussed 'The Golfer who cannot keep his eye on the Ball', 'The Stutterer' and 'Diagnosis and Medical Training.'

Conscious control, however, is a much bigger thing than the cure of a relaxed throat, a bad stutter, or a fozzled approach. It concerns itself with general defective reaction rather than specific symptoms or disorders. It is obvious that one of the most serious defects in modern civilization lies in the readiness with which the majority react to all sorts of stimuli in an unreasonable and uncontrolled way. As general results of this one might instance the Great War, exaggerated Nationalism and the power of the popular press, and from the individual standpoint, a trained 'Alexandrian' notices that many stimuli are all too frequently followed by harmful and unnecessary muscular pulls. Within the space allowed to this review it would be impossible to trace the connection between these harmful pulls and the Great War. That there is a very close connection, however, would not be denied by anyone who has had practical experience of Mr. Alexander's work. The matter is summed up on page 41: 'Seeing, therefore, that it proved possible to bring about a conscious control of my reaction through a change in the direction of my use, the reader will understand why, in my opinion, *the substitution of conscious for instinctive direction in the changing of use* is of primary importance, and why I believe a knowledge of the means whereby this change can be brought about would be of inestimable value in all educational work.'

Education in conscious control then, should start in our schools. The difficulty of correcting habits which have taken years to form is realized only too well by the writer of this review. He has also witnessed the comparative ease with which good psycho-physical functioning could be acquired by his children, two of whom have been taught by Mr. Alexander. In the sphere of education it is impossible to overestimate the importance of this work. This is the opinion of Professor John Dewey, who in his admirable introduction writes: 'The technique of Mr. Alexander gives to the educator a standard of psycho-physical health—in which what we call morality is included. It supplies also the "means whereby" this standard may be progressively and endlessly achieved, becoming a conscious possession of the one educated. It provides, therefore, the conditions for the central direction of all special educational processes. It bears the same relation to education that education itself bears to all other human activities.'

R. D. Best

**Social and Psychological Aspects of Primitive Education.** J. M. Evans. (Golden Vista Press. 5s.)

The subject of this book is one that calls for fresh and adequate attention from the psychologist, and the title naturally arouses eager anticipation. But although the author has read widely and assiduously in the literature of ethnology and psychology, and quotes from all the reputable modern scholars in both subjects, she is quite unable to do anything with the facts and theories which she amiably strings together. The book is little more than a series of indiscriminate quotations, devoid of critical analysis or constructive understanding. All that one is left with is a vague picture of primitive parents and children as after all rather nice people.

Susan Isaacs

**The Sexual Side of Marriage.** M. J. Exner, M.D. (Allen & Unwin. 6s.)

This book, of American origin, is an attempt to reduce the number of unhappy or partially unhappy marriages which result from inharmonious adjustment on the problem of sex. No one will deny that the problem exists, and few will deny that its solution in most cases depends on a removal of the principal cause of maladjustment, ignorance.

The book itself contains little new material, either in facts or arguments. Others have equally clearly described the comparative physiology and psychology of sex, given the statistics of various mass experiments on a large number of voluntary 'cases,' and offered sound advice to those about to be married or in need of assistance in refloating the bark of happiness which had run on to the shoals of ignorance. Dr. Exner, however, has given all this and a great deal more in clear and palatable form within the covers of one volume, and his outlook, like his style, is always persuasive, reasonable and filled with common sense.

If one tries to analyze the vague sense of dissatisfaction that lingers in the mind, after reading it, one traces it in fairness to the impossibility of writing about the inward intimacies of such an essentially personal subject, and it may be that the author fails in achieving yet greater success by the somewhat materialistic attitude of the medical mind. Can such a profound and dominating force as sex be 'cribb'd cabined and confined' within the four walls of rational analysis, and do the fields of physiology and psychology, as generally understood, cover more than a portion of the world in which the force we describe as sex holds sway?

Be this as it may, it is indisputable that these two aspects of sex play an enormous part in marital happiness, and that a vast proportion of marital unhappiness could be cured by greater knowledge of one's own and one's partner's mental and physical needs. If to this knowledge were added the gift of imaginative sympathy, there would be a larger proportion of happy partnerships, and therefore of fully matured and developed personalities, than at present observable.

T. C. H.



# PARENTS : AND CHILDREN

SUPPLEMENT TO "THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL"

VOL. 1. No. 2. SEPTEMBER 1932

## THE FIRST FIVE YEARS

HARRIET MITCHELL, B.A., R.N.

**T**HE fourth basic need for the healthy mental development of the child is that he should learn to face and accept reality. Children, and grown-ups too, are apt to make up all sorts of excuses for their doings, and even for their feelings—excuses that in the end seem more real to them than reality itself. We cannot begin too early to help the child to face facts.

### Making Excuses

For example, Mary, aged 5½ years, was just learning to read. She was using a fascinating book containing pages to be coloured and things to be cut out, as a means of teaching her to recognize words. As a special privilege she was allowed to take the book home after school, with the definite instructions 'to do no more than two pages', since 'home work' is not advocated at the school. Mary was absorbed in the colour work. She loved doing it and could not bear to stop. Her sister reminded her about the two-page limit. Mary said 'Just one more', and worked on and on until she had completed half the book.

The next morning Mary said she did not want to go to school. However, once she and her sister started getting their things together, as usual, she soon found herself ready and on the way to school, *but she forgot her reading book.* At home, nothing was said about the book, but of course her mistress was surprised at her having left it at home and she was told to be sure to bring it the next day.

The following morning Mary announced

that she was not going to school. When questioned she said she had a headache. When her parents assured her that the slight headache would probably disappear during the brisk walk, she reluctantly started to get ready. When her things were on and some one reminded her about her reading book, she said 'I wish I didn't have a book', and burst into tears. Realizing what was at the back of the outburst, Mary's mother sat down with the child and worked out the problem. Mary did not want to go to school. Why? Headache? Not really. What, then? Mary wished she didn't

have a book. Why? Could it be because she did not like to admit to Miss C. that she had enjoyed painting the book so much that she had not stopped at the two pages she had been allowed to do?

Mary's mother showed her that it is not very useful to try to hide the real facts from ourselves or others; that it is better to understand and face and admit one's mistakes, take the consequences, and then let the unpleasant experience help one another time not to do the same thing again.

### Help Them to Face Facts

Children need to be helped to see through the excuses in which they disguise their real motives, even from themselves. They need to understand and accept the fact that some of the things we should like to do, and some of the reasons for wishing to do them are not idealistic,

*In the June issue of the "New Era" Mrs. Mitchell discussed the first three needs of a young child if he is to grow up with a healthy, well-balanced mind. These were security, appreciation for what he himself is, and a reasonable guidance. In this article she completes the list.*





Teach them serviceable habits

[Reproduced from 'Peggy and Peter' by kind permission of Messrs. Ivor Nicholson & Watson]

that we have instincts that are unacceptable both to ourselves and to society. The biggest task of growing-up is, after all, to understand *consciously* human nature with all its strengths and weaknesses and then to modify and redirect our impulses so that they may run in channels that are satisfactory both to ourselves and to the community.

#### Help Them to Form Good Habits

The fifth point I would emphasize is that it is the duty of the home and parents to give every child a firm foundation of well-established routine habits. Good habits are more necessary than ever to-day, for they save so much both in time and in conscious effort. Well-established habits act as 'drives to action', and thus frequently simplify life by making our decisions for us. This is the reason why we make sure that children develop habits that are useful and constructive.

How are habits most easily established? We used to feel that *repetition or practice* was the most important factor in habit-formation.

With our better understanding of the rules of learning, we now realize that what is even more important is that the child should get pleasure and satisfaction out of what he is learning to do. Practice, with feelings of annoyance or irritation, makes one anxious to avoid repeating the activity or behaviour. Practice, accompanied by feelings of satisfaction and achievement, makes one ready to repeat the behaviour or action.

Willingness, interest and co-operation are all necessary if the child is to accept routine cheerfully and if he is to build good habits.

In all habit formation, in addition to the above there are two things parents need to keep in mind:—

(1) Do not expect a child to learn with success and satisfaction to himself, and without undue physical strain and exertion, activities for which he is not yet *physiologically ready*, by which I mean things that require more dexterity and co-ordination than his small fingers can command.

(2) As far as possible see that the child gets satisfaction out of *personal achievement* rather than through approval and reward from others.



Surround the child with things he can use and create with

[Reproduced from 'Peggy and Peter']



### But Don't Make a Fetish of Habit

In addition to the foregoing, I would plead with parents to keep the whole problem of habit-formation in its proper perspective. Serviceable habits are necessary, serviceable habits are essential to orderly, productive and satisfactory living, but they are *important only in so far as they are means to this end*. When we come to think of it, we none of us want to bring up children to be merely clean and tidy—but we are apt to become so engrossed in the business of teaching them good habits that we forget to remember that these are merely tools.

### Let Them Learn by Doing

Children are all essentially curious, imitative, self-assertive; they enjoy approbation and attention, and they have a strong urge to activity. If we could only see the wisdom of spending time and energy upon finding constructive, reasonable teaching outlets for their interest, upon redirecting energy instead of trying to suppress it, we would do away with most of our educational problems of conflict and frustration, and conserve the mental health of the child. The spontaneous 'wish to learn' which every normal child possesses, as shown by his efforts to walk and talk, should be the driving force in education. The most important contribution of the new education is that it has ceased to compel the child to learn, and instead it exploits his innate wish to do so.

Children want to find out about things by their own experiment, not by being told. They want and need to learn by doing. How can they

learn in this most economical fashion unless they are allowed to be active and to experiment freely? Surround the child with things he can use, handle, construct and create with. Give him raw materials of all sorts—blocks, crayons, paper and paste, paints, sand and scissors, clay for modelling—and *give him reasonable freedom and time*. Encourage him to work out his own ideas without constant adult criticism and interference. In the early years he should not be striving to attain some standard set by grown-ups, but to find out for himself how best to use his materials and tools to make the sort of

things he needs.

### Punishment v. Guidance

When the child is obviously held up and discouraged by his own lack of skill and experience, help him out a little, but also see that he sometimes learns through his own mistakes. He will make mistakes, many of them, and sometimes they will be very

troublesome and irritating to adults—for instance, when you find that Anne has cut into a new piece of cloth to make a doll's dress. This kind of accident is exceedingly exasperating and costly. It can be handled by punishing the child for the mistake of inexperience or impulsiveness, by scolding or more forcible punishment, and possibly forbidding the use of scissors. It can be handled as a teaching experience (which the parent must view as philosophically as she may), explaining to the child just what has happened, deciding with her that another time it might be well to talk over plans with mother, and seeing that



*Working with absorbed interest*

[Reproduced from 'Peggy and Peter']



she is provided with a box of materials that she can consider her own. The latter method works with the child's interest, self-confidence and wish-to-do. The former method undermines all.

### Children are Creators

This is possibly the most important point I would make. Music, playing instruments and singing, dramatizing nursery rhymes and daily happenings, dancing, painting, modelling, in fact the greatest variety of creative activities is most important. They are valuable in at least two ways: they enlarge the child's store of experiences and they are channels through which he may freely express his unique individuality in his unique way. Anyone who has watched a child working out his own ideas, whether in sand, wood, clay or other materials, cannot but be impressed by the concentration, absorbed interest, enduring patience and whole-hearted effort that the child embodies. *Children are creators* when their initiative is encouraged, not stifled. If we want our adults to create in many fields—to accept the responsibilities of social leaderships, to be influences for good in the community, we must see that they are given a chance to practise these qualities, to be

self-expressive from the beginning. Most of us grown-ups are still suffering from the inhibiting effects of a too repressive education. It is seriously damaging to mental health. How many potential artists there are among us—artists whose creative energy has been dammed at the source and who cannot express themselves in any way without agonizing self-consciousness and fear of criticism.

### Help Them to Express Themselves

We must *foster the creative self-expression of our children*, for given the opportunity *they are creative*—in literature, in art, in music, in rhythm, in construction. Every child is endowed with the capacity to *express* himself—and this capacity is immensely worth cultivating. Help your child to express himself creatively, naturally and freely—through many mediums. *Appreciate* him! This means so much more than understanding him. It means in addition that almost intuitive ability to identify oneself with another so that his inner purpose is illumined for us. Draw him out—encourage his responsiveness—to things, to people, to situations. Responsiveness and expression are after all the vital concerns of life.

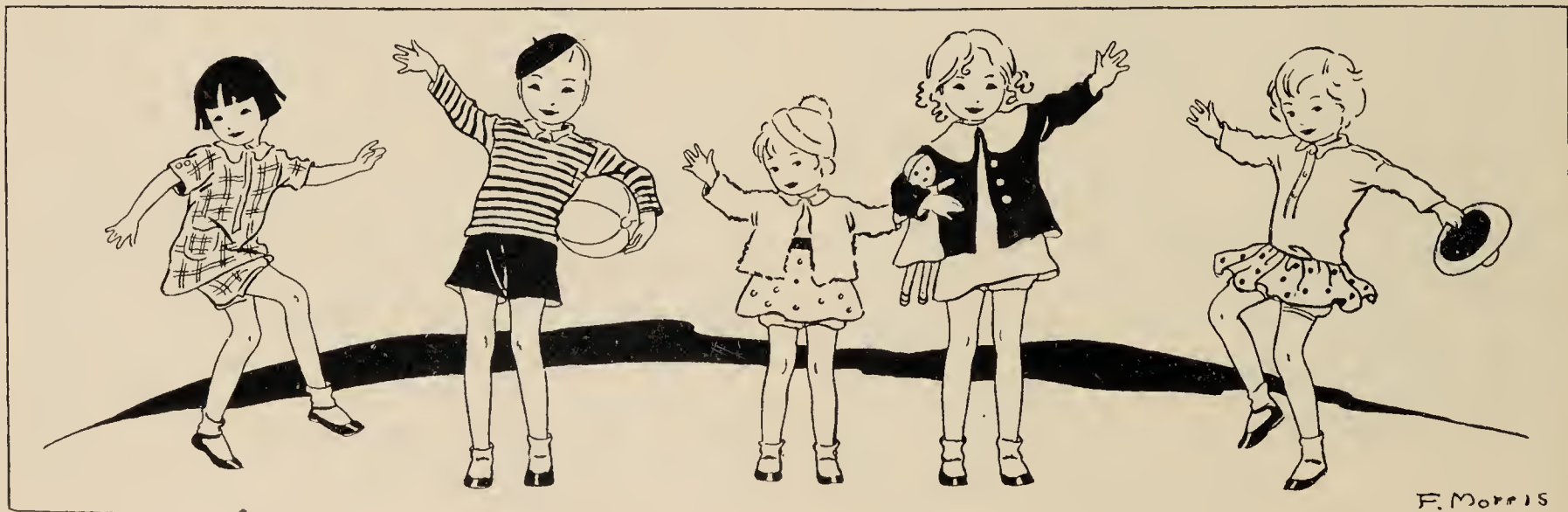
## CLOTHES FOR THE YOUNG CHILD

HONOR KEATING

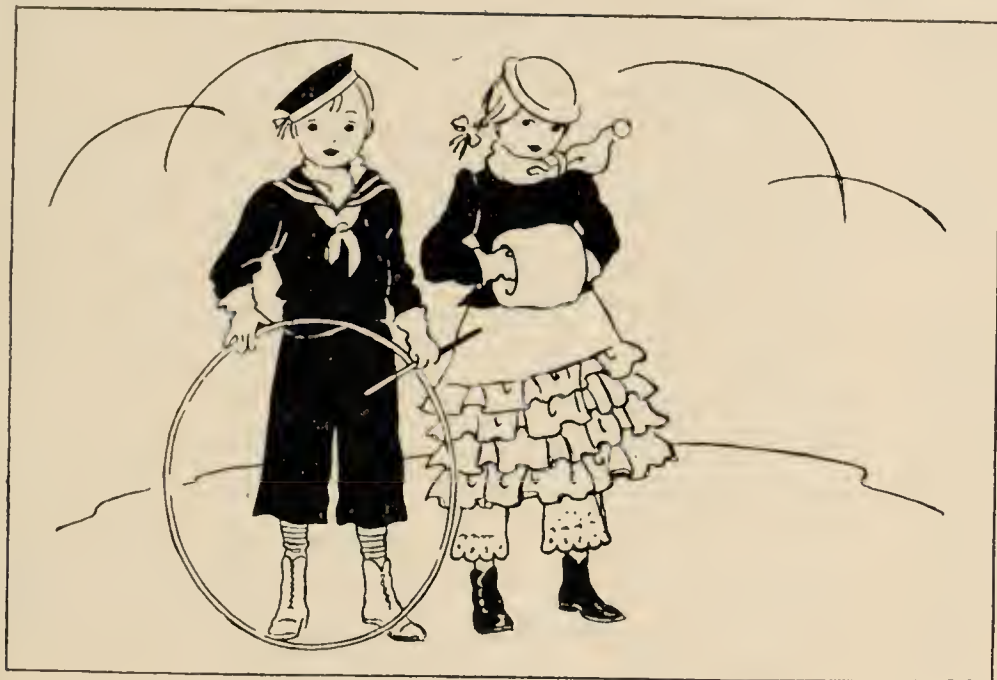
**W**HY should we wear clothes at all? The ancient inhabitants of this island painted their whole bodies and then went more or less naked. Yet these ancestors of ours survived, though they lived in caves and had no idea of central heating. To-day most

people think they would die of cold if they went out unclad in the snow. They do not realize the risks they run through overclothing.

Clothing is worn chiefly for three reasons: for adornment, to satisfy the modern standard of decency, and to protect the body from the





*A Legacy of Overclothing*

rigours of excessive cold or excessive heat. On the whole, clothing is a good and pleasant thing and adds to the enjoyment of life. This psychological effect of clothes—the pleasure and self-confidence given by becoming dress—should not be forgotten.

The conditions of modern civilization make it imperative to wear clothing. If one went unclad in cold weather, constant exercise and a much greater intake of food would be needed daily in order to maintain the body heat and to supply energy. Suitable clothes assist the skin to function but, unfortunately, we have been handed down a legacy of overclothing. If we exclude the air from the body, the skin will cease to function freely.

The skin is not just an envelope or a paper bag to hold the contents of the body. It is a very important part of the body which has to perform certain functions. It is the heat regulating apparatus and also an excretory organ. When warm or cold air gets to the surface of the skin, the nerves send messages by which the blood vessels expand or contract, so keeping us warm or cool, as needs may be. Hence it can be seen that clothing should be of loosely woven fabric to allow the air free access to the skin. If through overclothing this response to heat and cold breaks down, it leads to a lowered resistance to disease.

As an excretory organ the skin throws off toxins and fatigue products which must have a means of escape if the body

is to remain healthy. Overclothing, instead of protecting one from colds, actually causes a greater susceptibility to these and to their complications. To keep the skin healthy an air bath is as essential as a water bath.

These principles of clothing apply to all ages. The clothes must be porous, light in weight, warm in winter, cool in summer. In obtaining porous clothing, the *weave* of the material is most important. Cellular cotton is good because of the air holes; flannelette and calico, though both are made of cotton, are bad, because they are close and air-proof. Wool is good because it cannot be closely woven; silk is also good.

Choose garments made of suitably woven material. These should be made loose, with no constriction anywhere, so that no part of the skin is hampered.

Only sufficient layers of clothing to maintain an even heat should be worn—not such as will cause one to perspire. It is usually said that children should not wear more than three layers of wool on any part of the body indoors in winter. For outdoor wear a coat should be added. In severe windy weather this coat should be of tweed or serge, not hand-knitted, as the latter is too open and may cause over-stimulation and chill.

The up-to-date baby is put into ideal clothes from birth. These consist of the hand-knitted outfit of vest, leggings and jumper, a

*Modern children—lightly but warmly clad*



carrying shawl for moving him in draughty passages, and a blanket for the perambulator. The waterproof cover supplied with perambulators should only be used for actual rain—all mackintosh is airproof and should be used only on rare occasions.

The young child's under garments and those of the school child should be of woven wool or flannel. The material for the frock will depend upon the occasion and the time of year. But all garments for the growing child must allow for growth; many gym. tunics do definite harm by constricting the chest of growing girls. Draw-strings round the neck, tight elastic and mackintosh knickers should find no place in a hygienic outfit, and it is important to remember that shrunken socks and stockings deform the feet as badly as do tight shoes.

The modern woman has eliminated those multitudinous petticoats and envelopments of former days and now wears the scantiest of clothes; as a result, her health has improved enormously. But the average schoolboy still wears more layers of clothes than a girl, and women would collapse if they had to carry about

on them the weight of clothing worn by the average man.

Although women are sensible as regards what they wear themselves, they often cling to the fashions of their grandparents in dressing their babies in long enveloping clothes and tight binders. This is not quite fair, for the mothers would not walk out in the relics of a past generation!

We are growing more reasonable but there is still much to be learnt. In the hot weather last July some babies were to be seen dressed in several layers of wool, whilst others wore sun-bathing suits which exposed the neck and spine to the intense heat of the sun.

In clothing, as well as in most other affairs of life, commonsense is badly needed. Take a little trouble to look as nice as you can for the sake of other people, and take infinite trouble that yourselves and your children may be as comfortable as possible.

*(Very practical paper patterns for ideal clothing for infants and young children may be obtained from the National Council for Maternity and Child Welfare, 117 Piccadilly, London, W.1.)*

## WHY I HAVE COME TO SEE THE IMPORTANCE OF PARENTAL EDUCATION

WILLIAM BOYD

THE Editor asks me to tell how I have been led to realize the vital need for the education of parents, and adds that what is wanted is 'a perfectly plain statement as to why people who are interested in education are more or less suddenly realizing that they must start with parental education'.

But how is it possible to make a plain statement about what is very far from being plain?

### Parents and their Children's Problems

So far as I myself am concerned, the discovery came by two stages. First came a sense of the urgency of the need of training for parenthood as a result of the experience gained in connection with an Educational Clinic for ordinary children presenting difficulties in

learning or behaviour, which a small group of us established seven years ago in Glasgow University.

Unlike the American clinics for problem children, which were our only predecessors in this kind of work, our special interests were educational and psychological rather than medical and psychiatric; and we expressly excluded from our concern cases of mental deficiency and cases requiring specialized psychiatric treatment. The children who came to the Clinic were consequently tolerably normal children from tolerably normal homes, and quite a considerable number of them belonged to privileged well-educated families, anxious to give their children the best care they could.

One could not be long at work on this task without discovering the need for parental



education. The great majority of the problems one met were evidently the outcome of home conditions or seriously complicated by them. It was not merely bad spelling or stealing or stammering that had to be dealt with but the whole way of the children's life in the intimate relationships of the family, with which fathers and mothers are specially concerned. And the difficulties which had led the parents and teachers of our young folk to seek help and guidance were, one came to realize, for the most part not exceptional, but just the difficulties which occur in greater or lesser degree in all families and make some measure of education necessary for all parents.

#### **Direct Education for Parenthood**

The second phase of my conversion came later. When I saw how the needed education might be effectively imparted, my first inclination was to say: 'The thing requires to be done but it cannot be done'. It seemed to me that the conservatism of the grown-up which makes new ideas and new attitudes of any kind unwelcome would prove an insuperable obstacle in a sphere so personal as family life. The best I hoped for was that it might be possible to get some training given to teachers and clergymen—two groups of professional people closely in touch with the home—so that through them sound views regarding the upbringing of children might in course of time be spread abroad.

While I still foresee a valuable contribution being made to better home life by church and by school, I am now satisfied that more direct methods of education in parenthood are possible. What removed my doubts on this score was seeing the business being done in a large scale in America. Partly because the Americans are more ready than we are to try new things, partly because the instability of social life in a new land makes the upbringing of children a more serious problem than it is with us, there is a nation-wide demand for guidance in home management. In response to this demand, child study associations, parent teacher associations and other bodies have evolved a great system of formal and informal instruction in regard to parental tasks.

Though as yet there is not the same consciousness of the need for parental

education in this country, the impressive example of America makes it clear that when people here awaken to the importance of this education, the obstacles put in its way by ignorance and prejudice can all be overcome.

#### **The Idea is in the Air**

I have tried to set forth briefly how I have come to my own faith in parental education, but fear that my experience does not really throw much light on the very surprising emergence of a like faith among progressive educators in the last few years. Why is it that so many people have suddenly come to this new light? My change of view came through acquaintance with the problems of the Clinic and a visit to America.

But other people with a very different experience have been reaching similar conclusions. Seemingly some deep change of life view has been taking place in us all. What does it all signify? Whence has come this new truth, this spiritual insight?

One is tempted to say in this matter of insight that 'the wind bloweth where it listeth', and to leave the question at that. But this is surely a mistake. Insights always mean more when one understands something of their import.

In this particular case I seek for some solution of the problem by thinking back on my own views and attitudes. Here was I a teacher and preacher of the new education, open as I believed to fresh light, and yet for more years than I care to remember I remained indifferent to this idea of parental education as essential to the development of fine personalities and the progress of man. Why were my eyes shut to a truth which is now so obvious and so convincing?

#### **Your Child's Behaviour Reflects your Own**

It almost looks as if there was some repression some inhibition, some darkness of the soul. Possibly there was. The truth about the personal implications of worthy teaching and training is one that is hid from most of those who teach and train. They approach the child whom they seek to influence as superiors, and are not willing to see that education is a double-sided process which affects teacher as much as taught



and that to be a real educators they must educate and re-educate themselves.

I have to confess that I was slow to apprehend this in relation to my own children. It took a long time for me to realize that their behaviour and misbehaviour reflected me and that I could not change them for the better without at the same time changing myself.

In part I suspect that my blindness with regard to the need for parental training was due to the bad doctrine which I shared with my generation. The tradition of the new education which was carried forward from last century to this did not set any great stress on adult influences. Progressive educators in the first decade of the century were still consciously or unconsciously disciples of Rousseau in their distrust of any interference with the unfolding powers of the child. With one or two exceptions (John Dewey is an outstanding exception) they were inclined to look on parents and teachers as dangerous people who sought to impose their own practices and ideals on the child to the detriment of his personality.

#### **We Used to Say: Hands Off the Child**

On this view of the new education as non-interfering and non-dictatorial the rôle of the adult was reduced (in theory at least) to the rather external task of providing favourable conditions for a growth determined from within. Parents and teachers were adjured to become educational gardeners and discouraged from any attempt at forming character lest they imperil the child's soul. With this the prevailing attitude of educational idealists it was impossible for anyone to be greatly concerned about the

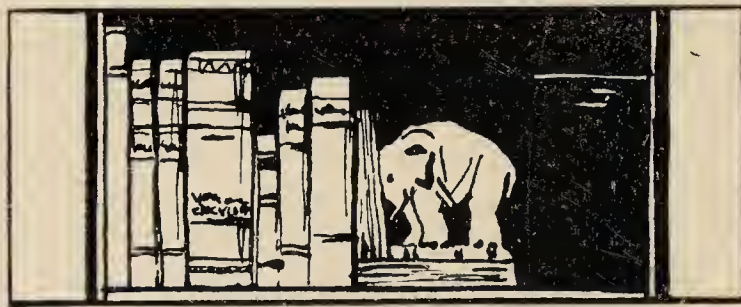
training of parents for their duties. The doctrine of freedom is very important in the criticism of current brands of education but not very helpful in dealing with the details of doubtful situations.

I wonder if all this leads to any answer to the questions propounded by the Editor? Why have some of us suddenly come to realize the need for parental education? Because, I suggest, the new education has been giving place to a newer; and a gradual change has come in our educational philosophy.

#### **We now Say: Guide him Wisely**

The difference in attitude between 1900 and 1930 is summed up in the fact that in 1900 new educators were still content to *study* the child (an external, non-interfering occupation) whereas we are now venturing to *guide*. Behind the difference, it seems to me, there is an entirely different conception of childhood and of the relation of child and adult. The idea of educa-

tion as the bringing out of latent characters has, under the influence of the analytic psychologist, been modified by a greater insistence on personality as fashioned by the interactions of the immature child and maturer adults. On this newer view, education is bound to involve the formation of the mind and character of the child by his elders, and the important question is not whether there should be adult direction but which kinds of direction best help the development of a fine rich personality. Child guidance is the attempt at wise direction, and *parental education is a training in the art of a sustained guidance through the everyday experiences of family life.*



### **HELPFUL BOOKS**

THE CHILD, HIS NATURE AND HIS NEEDS.  
*Ed. O'Shea.* (Valparaiso Foundation. \$1.) Various aspects of child training and development very sensibly and readably written for parents and teachers.

THE PROBLEM PARENT. *A. S. Neill.* (Herbert Jenkins. 5s.) Brings to your mind certain difficulties for which the parent is or should be responsible, and tends to make the parent think where he or she may be the direct cause of his child's difficulties.

YOUR CHILD TO-DAY AND TO-MORROW.  
*Sidonie M. Gruenberg.* (Lippincott.) Practical and sympathetic advice on problems all mothers must meet.



# THE NEW ERA

## IN HOME AND SCHOOL

*A Monthly Magazine for Parents and Teachers*

Entered as second class matter, September 23rd, 1930, at the Post Office at New York, N.Y., under the Act of March 3rd, 1878 (Sec. 397. P.L. & R.)

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Vol. 13, No. 9

6d. (8d. post free); 25 ¢ (35 ¢ post free)

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*The Editor is not responsible for views expressed by contributors*

OCTOBER 1932

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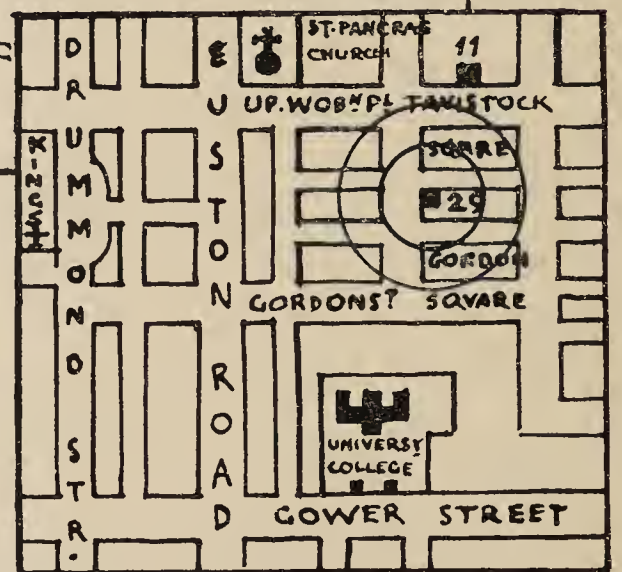
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# THE NEW HEADQUARTERS



THE NEW EDUCATION  
**29** FELLOWSHIP.  
TAVISTOCK SQ.  
LONDON, W.C.1.





# THE NEW ERA

## IN HOME AND SCHOOL

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### Outlook Tower

THIS is the first number of the *New Era* to be issued from its new offices, and our move to the opposite—and quieter!—side of this old London square leads us to view in retrospect the work of the last seventeen years. This work began in 1915, when, amid the bewilderment of war, the only thing that we realized clearly was that education alone—a dynamic education that released the creative powers inherent in children and helped them to understand themselves and others—could prevent the repetition of such disaster. Now, amid the bewilderment of ‘peace’, this same conviction remains: that the future of civilization lies in the hands of the educators.

*International Headquarters* For some time past the accommodation at 11, Tavistock Square has proved inadequate for the growing needs and activities of the New Education Fellowship. We have therefore moved into larger premises. The decorations, in a modern scheme of jade, black and cream, were done by Marjorie Murray as her very generous gift to the Fellowship. No. 29, Tavistock Square will be an educational centre, for in it will be housed, in addition to the New Education Fellowship, and the *New Era*, the Home and School Council (the British movement for Parental Education and Parent-Teacher co-operation), the Nursery School Association, the Froebel Society and a collection of Experimental Toys and Playroom Equipment, arranged by Mr. Paul Abbatt. Thus several important movements concerned with the changing education in Great Britain will be closely linked, and will be able to co-ordinate their work, with a saving of time and money.

Moreover, this part of London is becoming increasingly recognized as an educational

centre. Within a few minutes’ walk of our new offices are the new site of the University of London, the headquarters of the National Union of Teachers, the Associations of Headmasters and Headmistresses and Assistant Masters and Assistant Mistresses in Secondary Schools, and of the Society of Friends and other educational and international bodies.

As the headquarters of an international movement, the Fellowship is in close contact with educationists, from nursery school to university and training college, in every part of the world. We hope that progressive educationists in every country will consider No. 29, Tavistock Square to be the gift of Great Britain to all those who see in education the great liberator of the highest faculties of man and the great peacemaker between nations.\*

#### *Reorganization of Work*

The work on the administrative side of the Fellowship is to be somewhat reorganized. During the last year our members have been asking us for information, help and advice on an increasing number of subjects, and we are particularly anxious that this side of our activities should run as smoothly as possible. I shall continue my work as Chairman and Director, with Wyatt Rawson as co-Director. Clare Soper will be in charge of the membership department and D. V. Halbach of the Bureau department, and between them they will welcome members from home and overseas, helping them to make contact with people who

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\*The fund for the purchase of the lease of the new house is still open, and we shall welcome contributions from any of our members in the British Isles who wish to help in this way. Cheques should be made payable to: The New Education Fellowship, Ltd.



will be useful to them in Great Britain and abroad, advising them as to what is most worth seeing in progressive education, helping parents to find schools for their children and teachers to find posts that will give scope to their abilities and interests, arranging exchanges with foreign schools, and so on.

A. J. Lynch, as Field Secretary, will be available for lecture courses both in London and the provinces, and his wide experience as a practical educationist will doubtless be of great service to many. The lending library is being reorganized as a reference library and the work of the *New Era* will still fall to D. V. Halbach and P. Volkov. Finally there is an important new appointment: Consuelo Oppenheim will come to us as Commissions Secretary. She will be responsible for collecting and collating the work of the various permanent Commissions which were set up at Elsinore and consolidated at Nice—Psychology, Curriculum Research, Examination Reform and Teachers' Training, and through them will help in preparing the ground for the next World Conference in 1935. Dr. Van der Leeuw, Honorary Director of the International Association of New Schools, will do part of his work from the London offices.

*Making Contacts* In an article in this issue A. S. Neill, who has an inimitable way of putting his finger upon essentials while seeming to be merely flippant, urges the necessity for pioneers to get to know one another, to make personal contacts as human beings. It is probably as such a meeting-ground that the Fellowship has done its most valuable work during the last seventeen years. Through Sections and Conferences and innumerable personal introductions we have brought pioneers in education into contact with one another all over the world. We always feel that it is not through our books and pamphlets and lectures that most has been done, but through the fact that we have made it possible for these educators to come together to discuss and argue and try to understand each other's point of view, to try to determine the underlying bases of the new education and the basic differences of its development in the various countries. The New Education Fellowship can claim to have welded

many isolated strands of thought and pioneer efforts into an organized and powerful whole.

### *Evolution of the New Education*

It is just because the new education is the result of experiment and research that it is so living and self-adapting a movement. As Dr. Boyd indicated in an article in our last issue, it began originally as a protest against the old conception that children were to be drilled and moulded so that they might grow up to take their appropriate place in a rigid and highly elaborate social system. The reaction from this compulsive attitude towards children led to a violent swing of the pendulum in the opposite direction. Parents and progressive teachers began to give children enormously increased freedom, fearing to correct or even advise them, lest any such interference should thwart their growth.

These new theories, when carried to an extreme, were very hard on children. The gentler spirits among them were over-burdened with the perpetual need to make their own decisions, and the wilder spirits grew up so ill-disciplined as to be incapable of any co-operate effort and therefore debarred from what should form part of the proper life of any man.

We are now veering back to a middle way in which we realize that the personality of the child must be studied and is deserving of all love and respect, but that he must equally respect the adult. The function of the parent and teacher is to surround him with the kind of environment which will form a sound basis of good habits, will stimulate his imagination and his desire to work. This does not mean that there is not a real and essential difference between the old education and the new attitude towards children. For the new education is based upon the new psychology, which is coming to understand the essentials of human development and of human relationships.

There is no absolute unanimity among progressive educationists, nor should there be, but there is gradually growing up a body of principles. When one studies the various forms of expression of these principles one may get an impression of confusion and contradiction, but if one delves to the substratum of essentials, one finds surprising and illuminating agreement.



*Unity in  
Diversity*

A participant at the Nice Conference who attended certain of the main lectures, sectional meetings and courses, may have got an impression of many-sidedness which amounted almost to confusion. This impression was heightened by the manifold methods of presentation, the variety of languages and the consequent need for interpreters. Yet as one reviews the speeches carefully one finds that through most of them there runs a pattern which can be discerned clearly though faintly. Through the main speeches one can sense the emergence of that culture and philosophy which will gradually shape the social order of the future, ordaining its rhythm and even its form. There is to-day everywhere chaos, confusion, strife, unhappiness, discontent, and fierce criticism of our social structure. But out of this world-wide travail a new age is slowly being born.

As one reads and ponders the utterances of some of the thinkers gathered at Nice one is filled with a great hope at what they foreshadow; for they foreshadow nothing less than a world-wide social order, based on a higher and more humane ethical code than any in recorded history. Needless to say, so great a conception cannot be accomplished in a few years. It must grow with the slow growth of evolution. The main speakers all outlined a similar course for this evolutionary process—yet they were of different nationalities and avocations; each spoke from his own experience and there was no question of their conferring together before addressing the Conference.

In the September and October issues of the *New Era* we have brought together under the headings 'Changing Cultures' and 'The Changing Social Structure' extracts from the speeches of three Frenchmen, two Germans, a Swiss, three Americans and a Dutchman—scientists, psychologists, sociologists, and educational administrators. And between them they say: Culture is the product of successive ages of men who have realized what they themselves consider to be important and desirable in life. There is a basic culture which is handed on from age to age, in which each age contributes from its own experience, and recording something of its own sense of values.

*Culture  
and Society*

Everywhere and always culture, the social structure and education have been closely interwoven. But so far our age has not produced its own culture because it has as yet attained to no sense of values and is hopelessly at sea as to what it considers important and desirable in life.

Scientific discovery and the conquest of space have drawn the nations of the world into close association, just as modern methods of production and distribution have made society a very narrowly integrated unit. Few of us, either nations or individuals, are self-supporting nowadays. The world has become a living organism whose parts are as mutually interdependent as are the parts of the human body. Yet man has not learnt to accept this interdependence, much less to live accordingly. He still clings to the narrow interests of town or class or country, not realizing that his whole concern should be to serve the interests of this world organism.

Thus man's ethical evolution lags behind his material achievement, and this is largely because we have lost the platonic sense of the oneness of life and have come to draw a sharp distinction between the things that are Caesar's and the things that are God's. This divorce between spirit and matter has caused an over-emphasis of the material and objective side of man and a corresponding neglect of the spiritual and subjective—hence our confused sense of values and our unco-ordinated lives.

The task of the modern educator is fraught with great difficulties. There is an essential link between education and the culture of the age which produces it. If we lack an authentic contemporary culture, towards what are we to orientate our education? Towards the culture of past ages or towards this future which we only partially apprehend?

*The Wholeness  
of Life*

If, as I believe, the culture and philosophy of the coming age is based upon the sense of the wholeness of life; if the nations are to grow in moral unity as they are being forced to grow in economic interdependence; if we are coming to realize that mind and matter, east and west, man and God, are members one of another,



twin aspects of an indivisible whole—then this problem of education will resolve itself.

Much help is to be found in the new scientific spirit, for science to-day is not merely concerned with the narrow technical achievement which is enabling western man to bind the material world to his will, but is the 'process by which the spirit of man is adapting itself to reality'. Science itself is revealing to us that that which we have long been accustomed to call dead matter is interfused with energy. Science is proving to us how inadequate was our conception of the universe and how vast and powerful are the invisible forces which enmesh it.

It is the scientific spirit of ceaseless question and answer which if consistently applied to all the problems which harass us, may lead us to a solution which is humane and scientific. This discipline of ceaseless questioning, of discarding the irrelevant or unworkable, however much pains we may have taken to acquire it, is just what we moderns lack. We half formulate our difficulties and apply to them ill-thought-out and specious remedies. We hang on to dead accretions though we know them to be valueless. Probably the greatest contribution of science to the culture of our age will be its singleness of purpose and the restatement, in a guise acceptable to all thinking men and women, of the oneness of life and form, spirit and matter.

This is the basis of the philosophy of Holism—the only philosophy which seems entirely adequate for our modern needs. For an adequate philosophy must interpret life both in its smaller and wider aspects, and I do not see how we can interpret our modern world which is, in its material ordering, an organic whole, save, by recognizing the wholeness of all life.

Holism is the key to the understanding of what is meant by an integrated personality, by creative living, by an ethical code which would enjoin us to live co-operatively and to realize that man is only free in so far as he can identify himself with the whole.

*Education the Pathfinder* All these thinkers were unanimous in seeing in education the pathfinder and architect of the new social order—and it must not be thought that their deliberations are remote from the activities of the ordinary schoolroom.

For if we can avoid setting up in the schools the barriers that separate man from man—competition, jealousy and mistrust of oneself and one's fellows; if we can cease to divide knowledge into watertight compartments which we call 'subjects' and can show children that all learning is a quest; if while teaching them to live co-operatively and think constructively, we can also provide them with materials for creative self-expression, so giving each a sense of release and some understanding of the *feel* of creative living—then surely we can hand over to them the task of shaping the social order and evolving the culture of the future.

'You may give them your love but not your thoughts,  
For they have their own thoughts.  
You may house their bodies but not their souls,  
For their souls dwell in the house of to-morrow.  
You may strive to be like them  
But seek not to make them like you,  
For life goes not backward nor tarries with yesterday.'



# The Changing Social Structure

PROFESSOR C. H. BECKER :

I WISH TO TREAT OF THE INTERACTIONS OF education and social evolution, especially as influenced by racial diversities.

There are three main kinds of relationship between education and society: the first, as in the United States, and Germany, where it is society that has shaped and is shaping education; the second where, as in Italy and still more in Soviet Russia, theorists are using education as a powerful instrument for the formation of an 'ideal' society; the third, where, as in India, Africa, China and Japan, Western educational ideals have been engrafted on to, or thrust into, ancient civilizations, often with the most dis-integrating effect.

All attempts at religious or political imperialism, whether Moslem or Christian or Bolshevistic, presuppose that human mentality is, or should be, uniform. But does such uniformity exist? In New Education we respect the individuality and originality of each child, and think that each, if enabled to develop properly, has a contribution to make to the community. But do we extend this conception so far as to respect racial individuality?

When dealing with native African races the problem is relatively simple. We recognize in them many of the characteristics of our own children, so that we may say that they simply need to be educated, though obviously we must be careful that any education we give should be in accordance with the needs of their own environment and the best of their own tradition.

The problem is far more complicated in the case of Asiatic races, who possess civilizations more ancient and often wiser than our own. They are not children, but their mentality and many of their values are different from ours.

The common basis of the European and American world is of Latino-Germanic origin, with a strong Hebrew infiltration, and it possesses a development based on Christianity and on the civilization of the ancients. The Mohammedan world shares with us the Semitic strain, and also the heritage of Greece and Rome, and that is why it is nearer to us than the Indian or Chinese world.

The tragic antitheses which exist between Hindu and Mohammedan in India are the product of historical cross-breeding of races and cultures. Indian Buddhism, spreading to China and Japan; the penetration of Mohammedanism into the Malay peninsula, Further India and even into China, are parallel phenomena to the spread of Christianity in Europe and America. I merely refer to these currents and movements as examples of the ties that exist the world over between various civilizations.

It is in the Pacific that the two great streams of civilization meet—civilizations which have their birth in the basin of the Mediterranean and in India respectively. The one found its outlet towards the West; the other towards the East. The antithesis is most marked along the Chinese coast, where East and West confront each other. Thus in this region the problem of the unity of mankind and of modern education is acute.

By this brief outline we see that it was not, in the first place, Colonial Imperialism that led to the intimate connection of cultures throughout the globe. Now, if all these races once willingly adopted the spiritual inheritance of other races, and assimilated alien faiths, is there any reason why the best of the philosophy of modern education—especially if it be content to modify itself to racial needs—should not have splendid usufruct amongst them?

What is the true meaning of a united humanity? Even with historically closely-bound peoples like the English, French and Germans, we find great divergence of ideology, and with Eastern peoples the divergence of moral values is even greater. A Chinese philosopher recently said that the relationship that counted for Europeans and Americans was that between human beings and machinery; for Indians, that between man and the Deity; for the Chinese, that between man and man. You may raise any objection you like to this axiom, but, as an example of the divergence in values as set up by various civilizations, the statement is characteristic and true.

Unification of mankind will not exist until diversity is its basis. Let me give an example of



what I mean. China has been advised to follow the example of Turkey in adopting the Roman alphabet. China could not choose a more short-sighted policy. Chinese writing is an appeal to the eye. (Our written letters serve only to express the spoken word; they appeal to the ear.) The development of the eye among the Chinese—a large portion of mankind—possesses a peculiar value as compared with our more one-sided development. Even the non-expert Chinaman perceives more under the microscope than does a trained European.

It is well known that the art of the East owes much to this acute visual perception, and it would be a loss for the whole of mankind if the Chinese nation, moved by an exaggerated desire for uniformity, were to change its alphabet, which has, as it were, created this intensity of perception.

Summarizing therefore, I would say that the nations are different, and that this diversity should be maintained. Just as we educate our children to be both individuals and good citizens, so the nations should remain individual retaining as much of their peculiar talent as they can, in order to contribute to a collaborating community of human beings.

## PROFESSOR ULICH:

ALL TRUE CULTURE IS THE PRODUCT OF THE human mind, which has evolved a sense of values and therefore knows what it counts as important and desirable in life. Before trying to set up a culture corresponding to the needs of our present age and adapted to its requirements, we must consider whether this age possesses any such definite values as would entitle us to expect it to build a new culture, or whether we should adapt our values to an inherited culture.

Very few educators question the wisdom of adapting children to the age in which they happen to be born. I refuse to admit, however, that our children should be adapted to the idea of culture and civilization which manifests itself in the society of our day. We should seriously consider this question. Is it worth while *trying* to adapt education to the present age? I feel that the answer must be in the negative. I am convinced that some day the

present epoch will be considered as a turning-point in the history of society, a period of transition, and that it will probably end in the substitution of a new social form for the present social order.

We live in a world in which new ideas are incessantly coming to the fore, in which new trends are constantly being evolved. In this struggle between opposing schools of thought, two facts stand out clearly: (1) the war is responsible in most countries for our present lack of equilibrium and (2) the struggle between rival factions is far stronger than any desire to eliminate differences and substitute for them settled and harmonious conditions.

The post-war generation in Germany, who hoped for and needed a culture which would overcome the war psychology, has been disillusioned. They feel that international life is based on the idea of power and on the weapons by which such power is maintained. They feel that their work has been destroyed, not so much by war as by the warlike forms of peace, and these are more unsettling in their consequences than are the actual passions of war-time.

If then, we speak of adapting education to the present time, this can only mean giving the younger generation possibilities of learning to know the age in which they live, and teaching them not to accept it without criticism. They must be taught to develop their instinct for values, they must learn what to accept and what to reject, learn to think quietly and impartially.

I have no great faith in teaching facts and stuffing children with knowledge, but I do believe in teaching them to think. I have enormous faith in the power of clear thinking; the man who does not think will perish. Culture declines when man refuses to think. He may imagine that his inner life will be fuller if he does not wear himself out with thinking, but the reverse is the case. We must, therefore, teach our children to know how to choose between good and evil, teach them to recognize what has substance from what is merely shadow. We must awaken in the minds of the child and the growing man the sense that he has to contribute something to the new culture. In order to do that children must



acquire a real sense of values and realize the need for clear and logical thinking.

A great deal depends on the teacher himself. We should not overrate pedagogical methods, although if these be bad, education is hampered. Education implies an incessant exercising by the child of his creative powers. I am opposed to an excess of method. Method and the growth of the inner life of the child should proceed on parallel lines. We must not exaggerate the part that formal education has to play in all this. The child must be given a peaceful atmosphere in which to create. Instead of discussing intellectual values with him, these should be demonstrated to him. Those parents and teachers do best who make their presence least felt, for it is not so much by word as by proximity, atmosphere, intellectual irradiation that the child is influenced and educated.

Exaggerated care, too much notice, these are factors that produce highly strung and arrogant children. The more we consider what conditions are necessary for the growth of creative culture, the more will the child benefit, *if he is allowed to develop in peace*. He must be given opportunities for quiet thinking; he must be taught by example to appreciate moral qualities, all this is important in view of the many currents and cross-currents which will sway his growing mind. I do not wish to imply that formal education is out of date, but that culture is not the result merely of adaptation to modern times.

And now I come to my last point—the need for true culture and the danger of too much talk. Modern transport and facilities of communication, increased technique, meetings, propaganda and the wireless and, last but not least, the printed word, all these have thrown man into a life in which there is too much insistence and assertion and clamour. The most successful leaders are often those who chatter most about ideals.

On the other hand, we have this tragedy of the present age that so many people have ceased to believe in ideals. No doubt this is the result of an all too rapid and successive production of so-called ideals, and their equally rapid disappearance. How can we set up a generation in which true ideals shall reign?

The first need is for a peaceful environment

in the early days of childhood and boyhood, opportunity for quiet thought, education that manifests itself in acts not words, in short in a suitable atmosphere. That is an indispensable condition if satisfactory results are to be obtained. If you cannot give the younger generation that atmosphere, it will be terribly difficult to educate it. Given that atmosphere, good results will soon be apparent.

Let us prepare a better education by learning what is needed, by developing the soul, the inner life of each nation, by developing those innate qualities that will help man to dominate the present difficult age.

We must not forget that hatred and dislike and destructive criticism are uncreative. Let us aim at belief in ideals, at readiness to fight for them, and when we have reached the stage of having extracted the best from our present culture, then, at some future congress for which we must prepare every day of our lives, we shall perhaps be able to uphold before the younger generation that doctrine of a new culture, of the possibility of adapting it to a new age.

## PROFESSOR PIAGET:

WE ARE TOO MUCH INCLINED TO ASCRIBE THE chaotic state of the modern world to political and economic conditions, and to forget that these conditions are due entirely to psychological and moral causes.

Every nation is now faced with similar problems—all social phenomena have in fact become international. The future of each particular group—whether nation or class—is now closely bound up with that of every other group. We are forced to live and think upon a much larger scale and a new reality faces each one of us.

But we have not yet adapted ourselves to this situation. We do not understand it, either morally or intellectually. We have not yet created for ourselves the mental control which will enable us to surmount our difficulties and fashion our world as we desire it. When we consider the incredible inaction of even the most intelligent of our leaders, we are forced to wonder whether, in spite of his control of material nature, man is capable of a rational



control of his social behaviour; whether he is capable of living internationally, or whether the necessary adjustment is beyond him. Are we to return to barbarism? If not, we must transform ourselves psychologically. For this is our dilemma and the crucial problem of education.

Discouragement is no mood in which to set about such a task. If we consider the historical evolution of society and especially if we compare this with what we know of the psychology of the growing child, we may take heart again.

Man has already succeeded in changing his intellectual and moral attitudes in response to social changes, not once but many times in the course of history. These social changes have always been brought about by psychological advances in man himself as generation follows generation.

Sociologists have taught us that the transition from societies of the repressive or traditionalist type to societies of a differentiated type forming an organic whole, is marked by radical changes in men's morality and judgment. If we take as an example of the first type so-called primitive societies, and of the second, our modern democratic society, we can gauge the enormous possibilities of evolution in human nature.

A similar progression takes place naturally in the child himself, though hitherto it has been impeded rather than encouraged by our educational systems. The child normally starts as a self-centred being and develops in the direction of co-operation. But instead of allowing the child's co-operative tendencies to unfold themselves freely, adult society begins by forcing them into an educational straight-jacket, which results in an external conformity, but leaves each individual imprisoned within his own original self-centredness. The kind of mentality typical of repressive societies is nothing else but this compromise between repression and selfishness. As opposed to this, the modern ideal of society as an organic whole combines co-operation with a respect for personality. But this ideal is still so recent, and in consequence so immature, that any crisis may be fatal to it. This balanced unity, which has scarcely been worked out nationally, has not yet begun to be realized internationally.

The task of the New Education is, therefore, without limits. The development of adult societies, which we have just sketched, has only just begun to make itself felt in the school. Only a radical transformation of the school can make it an effective force in helping forward the evolution of society. Only if we discard the old repressive methods and aim at realizing the principle of intellectual and moral co-operation can we bring about a similar re-orientation in the mind of the child and thereby solve our present social difficulties.

## PROFESSOR LINDEMAN :

IT SEEMS TO ME HIGHLY APPROPRIATE THAT educators should confront this task of directing their attention to social reconstruction. Certainly the statesmen, the politicians, the bankers, the industrialists and, for the most part, the religionists, have during the last decade and a half behaved in a manner so lacking in insight as to almost stagger the imagination.

In connection with our subject I ask four questions:—

(1) What do we mean as educators when we so blithely use the term 'social reconstruction'? In other words, when speaking to the rest of the intellectual world in terms of social reconstruction, do we convey to them a precise meaning?

(2) How important is the family as a social form?

(3) In what sense is the family involved in our present crisis? I have decided not to direct my attention so much to the question of how far is the family involved as to the logic of the analysis of the cultural crisis itself.

(4) How might the family become a positive instrument, a positive agent for building a new society?

This is a period of history in which he who calls himself a teacher, an educator, ought to be specially ready to speak with great candour about his inner convictions, for everywhere people are motivated by fears and are saying things they do not mean, or saying things in public they do not say in private.

A short visit to Russia, from which I have just returned, has both quickened and sobered



me, and given me a new conviction that I ought to speak more freely and frankly of what I feel.

When speaking of reconstruction I do not mean what people meant shortly after the signature of the Treaty of Versailles, when the term was bandied about in Europe and America and meant chiefly innocent schemes of building houses for workers and such-like. I mean fundamental economic reform. I mean that capitalism has now come to the end of one epoch of its evolution. Capitalism is motivated by the theory of *laissez-faire* and can no longer function in the technical and moral world in which we live. But one must be very clear about the meaning of the word capitalism. There are as many varieties of capitalism as there are cultures. I mean, secondly, by social reconstruction, finding new sources of social stability, which will be found in a new kind of flexibility of behaviour on the part of individuals and institutions, with very little relation with that older stability resulting from settled forms of government, religion and family.

In the third place, I conceive of social reconstruction as meaning discarding old forms of society and experimenting and inventing new ones.

Regarding my second question, how important is the family? During the last three or four hundred years in Western civilization the family has been the important culture transmitter, and the great stabilizer. Is that to be its future mission? I believe there are signs which indicate that the family can no longer be regarded in this rôle of culture transmitter and stabilizer. I foresee the time when we shall look on the family as having a creative function, when the intimate relations between a man and a woman may become the setting for the richest kind of social, psychological and spiritual experimentation. It is the educator's task to re-interpret the family function in terms of this creative function.

Then my third question: The logical analysis of the cultural process of our time. One need not be a full-fledged economic determinist to realize that the economic aspect of society is its weakest side. What is not so easily recognized is that those systems of government which arose during the nineteenth

century, and which we based on a parliamentary conception as a conception of representedness, now find themselves quite incapable of dealing with the major problems of our time.

The third aspect of the cultural aspect has to do with science itself. Unhappily we, as well as all scientifically trained technologists of our time, have no true capacity for social functioning. We go on using science and technology as though they could be used externally for solving problems, as though you could take from science a solution and impose it on the people. We are beginning to see that science must be *of* the people, or else it becomes a new form of vicious external control.

Six highly trained engineers once came to me for a course of philosophy of culture. I never realized before how much an engineer could learn about things and how little about people, nor how much harm he could do because of his concentration on things.

Time does not permit of an amplified discussion of the cultural crisis, but it might be adequate to say that never since the latter part of the eighteenth century has there been throughout the Western world so much misgiving with respect to the meaning of the goodness of life, and so many people who were lost and could not find their ways with respect to what is good or evil.

Slowly and intelligently we must set to work to find a pathway of life which satisfies the individual, and leaves him with the feeling that he is leading a honest life.

My fourth question: How may the family become a positive instrument for social change or reconstruction? I think it may so become, first, if it is thought of as a place where education of the highest order is possible; secondly, if family training is initiated in all our educational institutions.

This seems obvious, yet have we actually confronted the problem? Where can children get a decent education in sex, and where can the problem of birth control be intelligently dealt with for adults? The actual science of sending this new purifying current through the whole area of sex questions is still to be done.

Finally, the family may become this new creative agent when we begin to realize how important it is as an influence upon the whole



of the rest of our behaviour. Until we begin to view family life differently it is folly to talk about world peace. We cannot have a peaceful world as long as family experience contains so much frustration and denial, if not conflict.

Before we accomplish this task I feel we are all going to suffer a good deal, particularly those who are sensitive about human welfare. But, as my favourite philosopher, Isaiah, once said: 'Although we shall eat of the bread of adversity and drink of the waters of affliction, yet shall we not as teachers be put away in a corner any more.'

### DR. VAN DER LEEUW:

UNLESS RADICAL CHANGES TAKE PLACE A WORLD catastrophe is inevitable. A vicious circle is making itself felt everywhere. People blame their statesmen for their inability to cope with the situation, but when one speaks to such statesmen they blame the nations they represent for not allowing them the scope and authority to effect necessary changes.

One would like to see action on the part of those who understand. But the strange paradox is that those who understand do not act, and those who act do not understand. Perhaps it is always the fate of the thinker to be slow in action and not ruthless enough to pursue a political purpose, with the result that actual revolutionary changes are left to the instincts and passions of the masses whose rebellion is justified by their suffering, but who by that suffering are not qualified for leadership. That is our tragedy.

We educators who are gathered together here from over forty nations must ask ourselves: What can we do in this world crisis?

The general feeling is that the educator is powerless, and that the action must come from the politicians along legislative and revolutionary lines. But legislation and revolution are never creative; only man is creative. Man alone can act, and beyond political changes and economic reconstruction there stands living man.

We are apt to think of social orders, economic systems, and forms of government as things which have an autonomous life of their own.

But try to imagine all human beings as having disappeared overnight from the world, leaving empty cities, and books with nobody to read them. Where then would be your social order, your economic system, your form of government? These consist merely in relations between living men.

When I see here more than a thousand educators from different nations, I see in imagination the hundreds of thousands of children whom they are influencing, directly or indirectly. That is the power of the educator. He deals with the generation of to-morrow in which lives the social order of to-morrow. According to the way in which educators of to-day accomplish the task of setting free in this generation the life which it bears, according to your action, so will be the future of humanity. You deal with the living material on which the changes and the possibilities of politicians and economists rest.

Remember that we are not educating for the present world in its state of chaos and crisis, but for a world of to-morrow, which the future generation will create. To do that educators must educate beyond themselves, which is a difficult task. They must try to understand the change which is voicing itself in this young generation, expressing ideals and values which the older generation can barely comprehend.

In speaking of the change taking place nowadays we must also remember it not as a decline, as Spengler would call it, but a re-birth. Not a re-birth in the same sense as the Renaissance of Europe in the fifteenth century, but the very antithesis of that. Then the individual awoke from a dream of mediæval unity; proudly asserting his individuality, he set out to conquer the world around him. Now man, weary of an individualism that degenerates into separateness, is seeking again that unity of life from which he strayed.

Without going into details of this conception of history, I should like to suggest that, in its greater and smaller cycles of historical evolution in the life of the individual and of nations and ourselves, humanity passes through three main stages. The first is that in which man is hardly differentiated from nature, still linking up with the unity of natural life—and you may remember something of this in your own childhood. The second is the phase which begins,



as in that renaissance of the sixth century before Christ, and in the fifteenth century Renaissance, with man understanding his own powers and the realities of the universe.

This phase always ends in tragedy because man travels away from his centre of life and is lost in the multiplicity of this outward universe. And here lies the mistake of Spengler—he looks upon this second phase as the ending of the life of a race or a nation. But I look upon it as the start of the third phase when man, tired of the life which gives him inspiration, enthusiasm and creative ability, seeks to return, but now consciously, to that life which he once knew unconsciously. I would describe it as a change from chaos to unity.

It is not a change which man willingly enters upon. It would be beautiful if he attained a sense of world unity by his own feeling that he is of one blood with his brother men. But as things have happened he has been forced to it by his own technical and scientific achievements. His intellectual being has grown, but emotionally and physically he lags behind, and so scientifically and technically we have made the world one, but the dream of unity is not that of an idealist, but a grim reality.

In the technical development of the last century man has annihilated space and gained a fictitious omnipresence. Man has made the world into a living organism with a circulation of ideas, goods and money, and a sensitive nervous system, so that what happens in one part of the world instantaneously reacts upon other parts.

We must not only think, but feel and act, in world terms. A new type of man is necessary who knows himself as part of a living world organism.

Since we have made this world a living organism we must live accordingly. Production and distribution for profit have become an anachronism. We need international production and distribution as they exist in our living organism.

You cannot have a planned economy without human beings who see themselves as part of the living world organism, and there education has a tremendous task to fulfil. There is a price to be paid for this advance we are making in history, and it is that which we call liberty but

which should be called licence. So far as man can identify himself with the whole he is free, and not otherwise.

So we must not weep over the sacrifice of individual liberty, but we must seek our liberty and individualism where they belong, and that is in the thought and feeling of individual man. Plautinus said that man's spiritual life was the flight of the alone to the alone. There is a sanctuary where man must stand alone, but where the organism is concerned all must co-operate.

It is only the new education which can realize these new conceptions of liberty and individualism in the coming generation, because it is the principle of the development of the child through self-expression and spontaneous activity. Where old education forced information into the child, new education draws life out of the child, and there lies the hope of the future.

The conception of work in this new world must be a different one. There should be no spiritual or material work, no noble or ignoble work, but only work which is the true function of the individual.

The new generation must be made to realize that they are part of a world organism, and no longer think in terms of separateness of group, school, or nation. We cannot say the suffering of other nations does not concern us, any more than that blood-poisoning in the hand does not affect the rest of the body.

That which holds good in economic life holds good in political life. There, too, the world unity is a reality which man refuses to recognize. World war is not only ethically wrong, it is scientifically wrong, and it is impossible. Man can still be stupid enough to wage war, but it will always be suicide to the victor and death to the vanquished.

You can educate a new generation to this new conception of a federated world, where national characteristics are not lost but where they find their full justification. Each nation will contribute its special characteristics for the harmony of the whole. That is a conception of nationalism which is compatible with and necessary to the coming internationalism, and it cannot be realized without the help of new education.



## La Maison des Petits—I

**L**A MAISON DES PETITS, a well-known Geneva experimental school, was first established in connection with the Jean-Jacques Rousseau Institute under the able guidance of Mademoiselle Audemars and Mademoiselle Lafendel. In 1929 the school entered upon the second stage of its career and was housed in an official Geneva state school with ordinary classrooms and no special facilities for the newer type of education.

In this school there are now 150 children from 4 to 7 years old, drawn from the poorer classes and working under the guidance of six teachers.

Two classes of children (4 to 6 years) form the centre of the research work of the Institute, and also a practising centre for the training of teachers.

The environment is planned so as to stimulate all the innate tendencies of individual children. There is the greatest possible freedom; there are no fixed lessons and no unnecessary interference. The child is stimulated by the material which surrounds him. After accomplishing a piece of work, he takes it to the teacher who skilfully leads him to take a new step in the acquiring of a technique.

The material is extremely varied and it has been planned so as to stimulate the desire for a variety of experiences. It has all been made by the teachers themselves, and is based on psychological study and scientific observation of the needs of children.

The school aims at training the sense and motor control of the children rather than teaching them any particular technical skills. In the same way the children acquire a sense of what number means through a variety of experiences in measurement, rather than through doing sums. Training of intelligence is thus effected by proceeding from simple activity to contemplation.

The school activities are carried on in the garden, where the children play on arriving at school and at any time they wish to during the school day, in the classrooms and in the play-room, where the material is so designed as to lead up to dramatization, dancing and art work. We shall show the work of this interesting school by a series of illustrations appearing in the October, November and December issues of the *New Era*.



*A Big Liner*



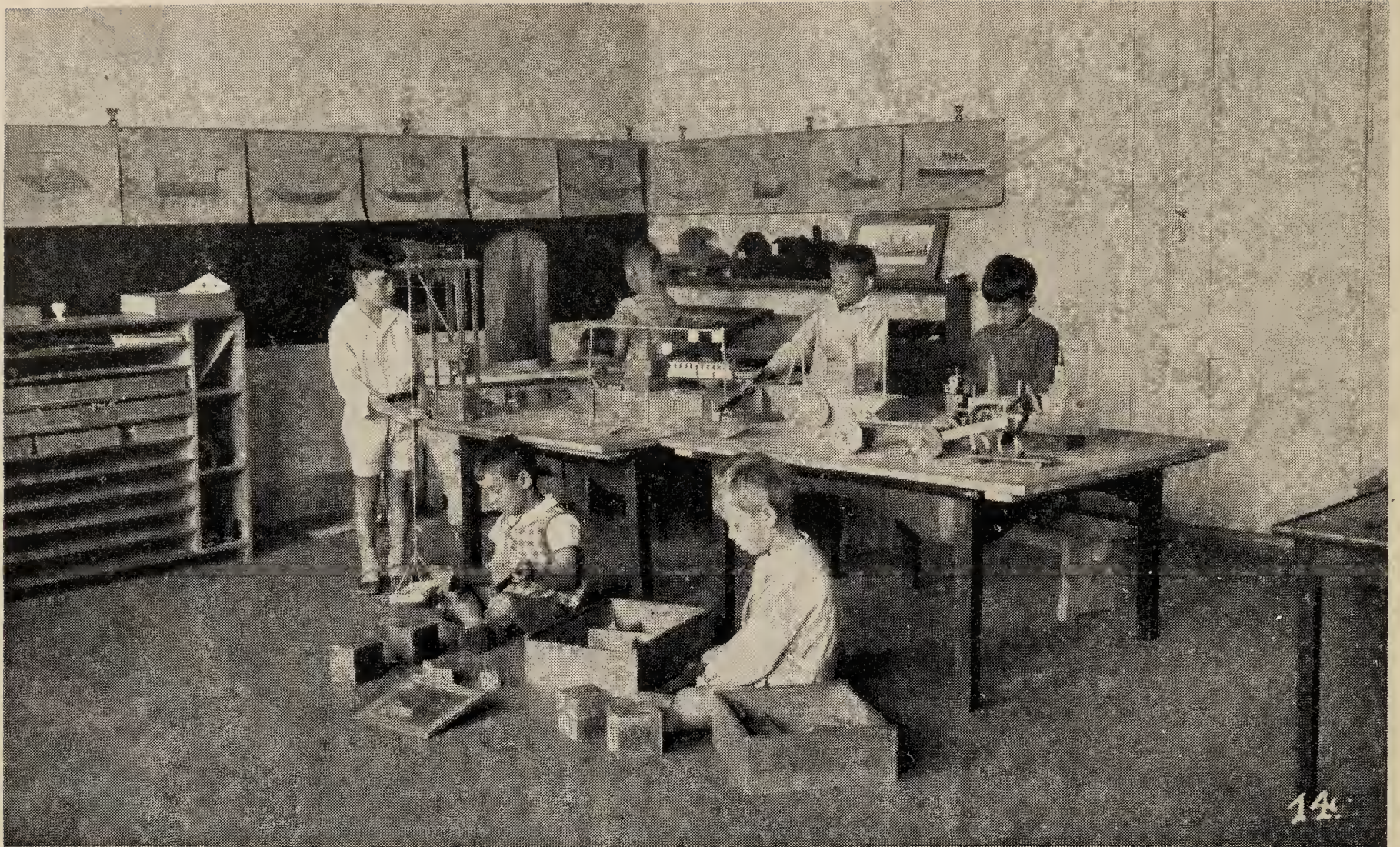


*The Pastry Cooks*



*The Builders*





*A First Attempt at Mechanics*



*A Real House*



# Inspection of Schools—A Personal View

A. S. NEILL

[THE New Education Fellowship sent in a memorandum to the Consultative Committee of the English Board of Education on the Inspection of Private Schools, and, on the publication of this Committee's Report, a meeting was held of the thirty-four Heads of Private Schools who had drawn up the memorandum. This is Mr. Neill's personal opinion of such inspection.

In England private experimental schools are extremely individualized, not only their technique but their whole existence depending largely on the personality of the Head. We have every type, from the extreme Left Wing to the slight deviation from the traditional school system. The New Education Fellowship has never stood for any one type, but has felt that its function was to stimulate research and to help forward the co-ordination and pooling of experiences by linking up the pioneers.

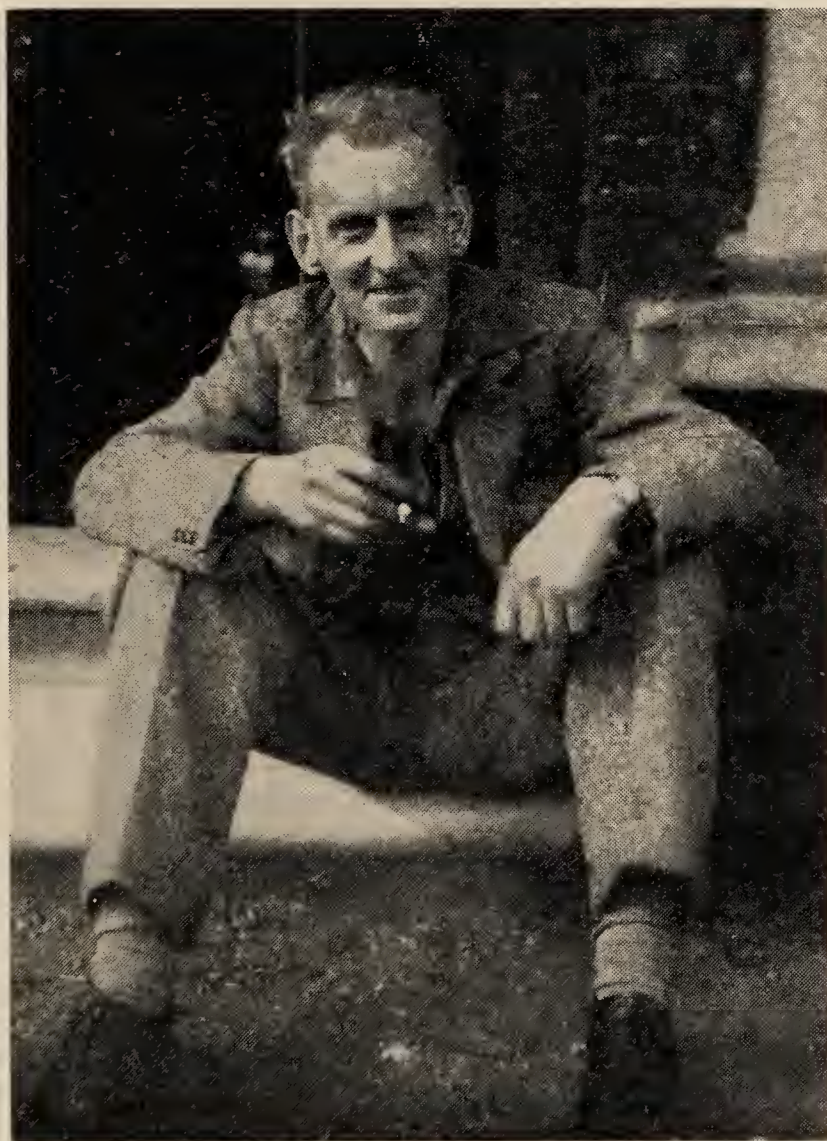
The word 'Fellowship' in our title indicates what Mr. Neill stresses. The Heads of the experimental private schools should meet, and wherever there is a sincere attempt to deal more wisely and sanely with children we welcome it, even where we do not agree with it in every particular.—ED.]

BY this time we have all read the Departmental Committee's Report. And most of us have found it to be a fair, almost kindly, Report. We all knew that some sort of inspection was to be advocated and most of us probably were convinced that inspection of the other fellow's private school was absolutely essential. I was hoping that the Report would demand the inspection and closing of Eton and Harrow and Frensham Heights and Bedales and lots of others, while you no doubt were pretty well of opinion that the Report would hang, draw and quarter my Summerhill.

And this brings me to an important criticism of the Report. The private school is to be inspected. Good—but who is fit to inspect? I am not capable of inspecting Dartington Hall, or King Alfred

School, and I am sure that Curry or Wicksteed would hesitate to pronounce judgment on my school.

Let me illustrate. I have had a longish experience of education, fourteen years of the old State school and more than fourteen years of the new education. A government department might reasonably say: 'This Neill fellow, now what about making him chief of the inspectorate? Bit of a crank and so on, but a man of great experience in this new-fangled new education stuff; let's give him charge of the Private Schools.' Good. I buy a frock coat and a top hat, and begin my rounds. A Montessori School is first on my list. I disapprove of Montessori Schools, so, being comparatively honest, I exchange duties with my second in command and agree to visit a



A. S. Neill



Dalton Plan school instead. But I dislike the Dalton Plan on the ground that it is a tinkering up of the old Ford—'subjects'. I therefore shelve the Dalton inspection and go on to—say—Bedales. This does not satisfy me, because the children's language is too pure—I hear, let us say, one Damn and a half-hearted Bloody.

The only possible thing to do is to resign my job. But who is to succeed me? After all, you and I are in our way creators, and no creator has an inspectorate mind. We know what we are aiming at, and no man is good enough to step in and tell us how to run our schools. If any inspector were to demand of me that I give up allowing children complete freedom to stay away from each or every class at will I should have to give an emphatic No, closing my school rather than compromising an inch. Therefore, what I want to know is this: Is inspection to accept us as we are or is it to instruct us in our own methods?

I mentioned swearing. When a child is given freedom he or she has an orgy of obscenity. Psychologically the correct method is to allow this form of self-expression full scope. I have a small lad of six who addresses everyone as 'You (unmentionable) (crudoric) (fornicating) fool'. I hasten to say that he has brought his vocabulary from his previous very moral school. Well, suppose the Board of Education meets this bright lad on my doorstep. What is it going to do? What is it going to think of my methods? I haven't time to sit down and teach any inspector the rudiments of child psychology. Any inspector can examine a kid in the 'Three R's because the Three R's are of little importance—any child picks them up by the way—but I have yet to meet an inspector who will believe that a child's psychology is of infinitely more moment than what a child knows.

Now let us be on our guard about this inspector business. Let us try to be conscious of what lies behind our attitude to inspectors. My own attitude is certainly a complex one. My father was a village dominie in Scotland, and when I was a boy my father's meagre salary depended on his 'grant' and the grant depended on the passes the H.M.I. allowed in Standard V. So that on Inspection Day my father had a violent headache, was as pale as a sheet, and stood very truly at the Judgment

Bar. Thus to me the inspector was an early fear symbol—the ugly side of the Father Complex. And to this day the sight of any inspector is to me a red rag. When an inspector comes to examine my bus ticket I get furious, for not only are my inspector complexes aroused, but also the act of inspection means that man is a vile swindler, for the bus inspector's job is to discover whether the conductor is helping himself to the pennies or not.

Now, I am not alone in my attitude to inspectors. I suggest that all of you have very much the same feeling about them. They are men of power; they can give us a 'bad report'; they will be able to close our schools. Perhaps worst of all they may worry us to distraction with all sorts of stupid forms and statistics. I remember Form 9B in Scotland. It took me weeks to sum it up, as I always did, all wrong. It demanded many things—I can't now recall them—things like The Average Age of the Average Number of Children Who have completed God knows what.

When I went to see the Secretary to the Local Authority in my district, I found him a most understanding and broadminded man. He said to me: 'Well, Neill, I think for your own sake you should keep a register.'

'That's easy to say', I replied, 'but what about this case? I have a boy of thirteen, just come from a disciplined school. At the moment his idea of freedom is to spend the whole morning riding round the school on a bicycle. Is that boy absent or present?'

The Secretary laughed.

'Under your system he is present', he said.

'Good', I said, and I marked him present.

This leads me to the thought that although I am lucky in having a Local Authority that appreciates what I am trying to do, I might just as easily have a Local Authority that believes in corporal punishment or the Shorter Catechism. And when we are all inspected our fate will hang on the kind of inspector we happen to have. It is all very well for the Departmental Committee to say that it will be good for the inspectorate to come in contact with new ideas and new methods. That may be, but think of the agony you and I will have to suffer in the process of elevating (or degrading) the inspectorate!



Now the Departmental Committee might well say here: 'Yes, but we have evidence that some private schools are bad. How are we to tackle the problem of the school in which twenty children are badly taught in a kitchen?'

Truly a difficult question to answer. Yet couldn't it be made as simple as, let us say, the application for a passport? In filling up an application form the traveller is required to show a guaranteed signature of a 'Mayor, Magistrate, etc.' Suppose the government required of all private schools a list of people who approve of the school. Bedales, King Alfred, Dartington Hall, Beacon Hill, Frensham Heights, St. George's, to name only a few, could easily produce evidence of support from well-known people. I know that I could get an excellent list of supporters myself. Why should we suffer the trouble and indignity of inspection? There is no earthly excuse for inspecting, say, Bedales or King Alfred. Their history and their successes make inspection merely fatuous and ludicrous.

The real truth is that inspection of a child's knowledge is just silly. I believe that Einstein was a bit of a dunce in school. Suppose an inspector had judged him by his knowledge when he was ten? I have had boys who couldn't read at nine, but who were clever lads at sixteen. Knowledge doesn't matter in life; what does matter is character, and you can't examine character unless you are a skilled psychologist, and then, of course, if you are skilled enough you find that you can't judge character at all.

Well then, speaking only for myself, I don't mind inspection of my premises and my food; I don't mind having a few inspectors down to improve their own education. But I refuse to accept any guidance whatsoever from any inspector whatsoever, any guidance in child psychology and education. We must not allow ourselves to take up a subservient attitude to the Board of Education. We must remain what we are, superior persons who are helping to advance the happiness of children. Don't let us be too modest. Let us form a select body of pioneers which will have for a motto *Hands Off Us!* We have nothing to learn from any Board of Education. The State education led evenly to the Great Civil War, and when the

war against the Soviet comes very shortly most of us will be killed or maimed, and it won't matter a damn whether we know the Three R's or not. But it will matter that at least a few English children have had a touch of that freedom that will ultimately be a world freedom in education.

Our capitalistic civilization is fast dying. It fashioned an 'education' that contented the people with the Three R's and the discipline of the classroom that led naturally to that of the factory and shop. It left out creation and freedom to be oneself. Capitalism quite unconsciously hates our pioneer schools; they are a subtle menace to the *status quo* in politics and economics. And since the State represents its master, Capitalism, our school inspectors are compelled to be unconscious agents in carrying out the ideals of Capitalism with its concomitant Imperialism and Militarism. This is a very important point. We pioneers are called cranks when we aren't called worse names, but the sneer covers a fear—the fear of the mob (the State) that our small group may one day grow into a great rival mob.

I hasten to say that I am not now writing as a political propagandist; political propaganda isn't my job and in my school I carefully keep out propaganda of any kind. Temperamentally I am a Left Winger, but what I say of the capitalistic State could just as well apply to a socialistic State. In a socialistic State, at least in its early years, educational freedom would probably be just as much suppressed as in a capitalistic State, but, not having yet been to Russia, I cannot judge. The pioneer school must be free from mob psychology, for, as the State thinks in masses, the pioneer school thinks in terms of the individual. We are the people whose ideas will be mob ideas in two generations' time. You and I should be able to smile at the notion that future pioneers will think us rather feeble psychologists, for psychology is just leaving the Stone Age for the Bronze. In other words we need not have any illusions about ourselves and our ultimate importance. Our present importance is a different matter. Compared with caning, fear-inspiring, pedantic schoolmasters we are educational saints. Our job is to lead the campaign against hate in the schools,



against fear, against psychological bondage.

It may sound comic, but I say in all earnestness, that we have a possible protection in the fact that we are nominally capitalists. For Income Tax purposes my school is a 'Business for Profit' and, although the profit is often exceedingly small, a private school is an important factor in any community. In my own case I make a point of buying most of my goods from the local tradespeople, and I guess that my community spends pretty nearly £4,000 annually in a small town that has much unemployment. I see in this factor a possible protection by the Local Education Authority. Suppose I threatened to close down rather than agree to a too harsh governmental inspection; I fancy that any government would think twice before being accused of putting about twenty adults out of employment and depriving shopkeepers of a good part of their livelihood. That is one reason why I think that we private school owners may be safer under the Local Authority than under the Board of Education.

I am aware of the obvious retort, originally given as an illustration by Shaw, that the road-hogging motorist gives employment to doctors and undertakers, and I agree that giving employment is not necessarily a good thing. But it is usually a good thing in the eyes of a capitalistic community. Money talks; big business can turn out a government. Economic power always precedes political power, so that we must not leave our economic importance out of consideration.

Well, fellow pioneers, what about it? Are we to become conventional schoolmasters and mistresses? Are we to join the mob of believers in subjects and exams? Are we to wait for the possible next governmental step and introduce Cadet Corps and imperialistic propaganda? No. No. Let us fight for our freedom. If necessary let us go on strike and sell matches in Piccadilly—we'd make more money that way I am sure. At our meeting in the English Speaking Union we voted for a *Bund* of pioneers. Let us all join, but let us join as militants. The Report is mild, even friendly, but we have no guarantee that the State action following the Report will not be stern. In effect the Report said: 'Only bad schools would be affected and freedom to experiment would

in no way be cramped'. Yes, but once make the inspection of private schools legal and we have a more or less hidebound central department that will interpret the law in the way that best pleases itself.

Our case is a splendid one. We have tongues and pens and some moral courage. Our schools exist in a State whose schools are allowed to cane and strap and practise mental torture, a State whose ideas of education are out-of-date, a State that believes that learning is education, that servility is a virtue. We simply must never allow our hands to be tied by any inspection. If we do we are cowardly servants, whereas we ought to be brave woodmen, cutting the ways to the New Jerusalem of child freedom.

But can we unite? I very much doubt it. Among us is just as much professional jealousy and hate as among Freudian and Jungian analysts. The bee in my bonnet is not of the same breed as the bee in your bonnet. Your bee may be the Dalton Plan, or the Higher Life, or Literary Style, or the Long Stair, while my bee is Self Government and freedom from moral teaching. What point do we have in common? The Freedom of the child? But then our ideas of freedom differ so much. I could name pioneer schools that attempt to educate the Conscious, and schools that aim at allowing the Unconscious to express itself. There is room for a gulf of misunderstanding between the two. Then what have we in common? Only dissatisfaction with conventional schooling, that is, a negative bond. This is our weakness as a body of pioneers; we are all at sixes and sevens. We can of course form a body that will have its major Right Wing, and its minor Left Wing, but possibly at the present moment this Left Wing would contain only Summerhill and Beacon Hill.

I confess that I cannot answer this difficult question. I cannot see this *Bund* of pioneer schools. Such a *Bund* should arise out of the New Education Fellowship, but the mere fact that I have never joined the Fellowship because I could not see it going the way I wanted to go, is a sad commentary on our lack of unity. We are indeed big men and women in our attitude to children, but exceedingly small men and women in our attitude to our fellow



pioneers. Don't you smile when some kind visitor to your school tells you that Neill's school is rotten? I do when visitors say nasty things about other schools. And you do, too—let's be honest about it. This attitude is partly due to our mutual unfamiliarity; I wouldn't smile at a bad criticism of the Russells' school because I know them and their school, and because I know Dartington Hall and the Elmhursts I would automatically find myself challenging the truth of a hateful story of Dartington Hall.

So that it seems that one way to achieve unity is to know each other. Hence, if we are to form an effective *Bund* we should in some way

get together, not formally at a conference so much as socially in a bar parlour as it were. Dear dead Norman MacMunn and I had a great admiration for each other because at conferences we used to sneak off to the nearest pub and swap stories. We need to know the personality behind the pioneer. Let us, therefore, think of ways and means whereby we may become friends, pals, humans. If a man smokes the same baccy as I do I have a bond with him. So let us make the basis of our *Bund* a human one, and let us forget our methods and our ideals until we have to make a stand against the common enemy—the conservatism of educational vested interests.

## Trends in Individual Work—I

A. J. LYNCH

THE recent Conference at Nice took for its theme *Education and Changing Society*. One after another, at the main meetings, the speakers sought indications characterizing the change through which society everywhere is passing. In the sectional meetings twenty groups were considering how the schools of the world could be brought into closer touch with realities, for there was pretty general agreement that education had not, so far, produced a people prepared to meet the problems that were pressing.

In what respect had it failed? It was felt that schools had grown too artificial, too remote; that there was too little connection between the school and that part of society represented by the home or the town; that it had too little relation to the nation or to the great family of nations. In arts and crafts, in science, in national and international issues, there was between world movements and education a distinct lag. This failure was ascribed, in large measure, to wrong relationships existing in the conventional schools between teacher and taught; to the too great limitation of 'subjects' to narrow grooves, and

to passive rather than active acquiescence on the part of pupils.

Activity was the keynote of the discussion of the newer methods of education, and the importance of individual work received the fullest emphasis. In the group with which I was associated, *Trends in Individual Work*, we had the advantage of the assistance and experience of such experimenters as Helen Parkhurst, Dr. Lucy Wilson, Dr. Carleton Washburne, Mr. Beattie, Mr. Howard Evans and Professor

Marcault. With the exception of the last-named, all gave an outline-picture of the experimental work in which they were, or had been, engaged. Professor Marcault gave a fine exposition of the philosophy underlying individual effort. Like myself, Dr. Wilson and Mr. Beattie

*Mr. A. J. Lynch, well-known both for his writings and as Headmaster of the West Green School—an elementary school run on Dalton lines—will describe in a series of articles how individual work can be introduced into the ordinary State school without additional expense.*

talked of work done in State schools, elementary or secondary; Dr. Washburne talked of his work in the Winnetka schools, while Miss Parkhurst and Mr. Howard Evans referred to their work in private and preparatory schools respectively.

From all the talks one or two common points emerged. All felt that there must be freedom—not as an end in itself but as a means to an end,



and that end responsibility and control. There must be activity, not merely for the sake of activity but for the opportunity it provides for the development of creative work and self-expression. The school, they said, must correspond to the needs of the children, for those who show little response to one type of approach may profit by another. In short, the school must fit the child. Class teaching must be humanized; ways must be found to allow the child to work in his own way and at his own pace. There must, however, be guidance and control of the quality and quantity of the work done, and yet this must not throw too heavy a burden of preparation and correction on the teacher. The *modus operandi* therefore of plans and techniques of individual work and the results obtained from the different methods will be discussed at length.

These points, however, raise the whole issue between what is commonly understood as the 'old' and the 'new' education. Neither designation is entirely correct. Though there is an 'old' education that is rightly condemned, the condemnation is not altogether on account of age; on the other hand, much of the 'new' is itself old, for there is nothing really new in the claim that education should be based on the free and active needs of children—these have been the characteristics of childhood from time immemorial.

Somehow, in the development of teaching practice during the last half-century and more, the emphasis has always been on the mass rather than on the individual—on the school rather than on the scholar. One of the most interesting things to the student of educational legislation in this country is to observe, even in Parliamentary enactments, the emergence of the child.

The first public grants to education were made in respect of school houses; later, the grants were made for the work of schools as a whole. In more recent times they were given largely in respect of education more closely associated with the child itself—his attendance, his progress and his close connection with such social activities as school journeys, medical inspection, music and the drama.

In a similar way, the mass methods connected with teaching are gradually giving way to the demands of individual children. There is no need here to examine in further detail the causes of the change. It is sufficient to say

that every enlightened administrator—whether teacher or official—sees not only the necessity for change in this respect, but also its inevitability.

It is interesting to find that the protagonists of specific methods of individual work can now come together to discuss the trends in individual work for children of all ages,

from the nursery school upwards, as principles of teaching rather than as arbitrary methods to be applied *ad hoc*.

There has sprung up in America, during the last quarter of a century, a considerable literature on this subject of old and new schools. It began with the penetrating philosophy of John Dewey, whose *School and Society* and *Schools of To-morrow* are in the nature of educational classics. It was taken up by men like Professor Kilpatrick and Dr. Harold Rugg, the latter of whom, in his books *Education and Culture in America* and *The Child-Centred School*, has built on the philosophy of his great teacher many and varied practical schemes. Anyone in search of definite help, showing how it is suggested that activity schools could be made to bridge the gap between school and life,



[Rosewood School, Cal.]

#### *Reading for Pleasure*



would do well to consult Dr. Rugg's books. He tells us that in America they are in the midst of a vigorous and widespread movement in education, and that the educational revolution there is thoroughly launched. It is significant, however, that the change is most apparent in private schools, and it is a tribute to the enthusiasm and persistence of the growing body of which Dr. Dewey is the centre that they were prepared to finance their schemes themselves in order to test their value and efficiency. It is in this way that schools like the Francis Parker, Lincoln, John Burroughs, Tower Hill, Park School, Cleveland, the Dalton and many other schools have sprung up and are justifying their existence. The Winnetka schools, with which the name of Dr. Washburne is associated, will be referred to in a later article.

One of the dangers, however, of an undue insistence on the necessity of greater freedom and greater activity in education and a nearer relation of school to life, for which the schools above referred to stand, is that of misdirecting or even misunderstanding the application of these principles. Dr. Rugg himself says in a half-warning note that 'even of the most rebellious reformers, few advocate that the entire work of the school be based solely upon the naïve and spontaneous interests of the children'. A glance at the timetables of some of the new schools mentioned above shows this. It is clearly not a case of 'this' or 'that', but a case of combining 'this' and 'that' in such a way that the clamant needs of children may be

met. Examples suggesting how this might be done will be given in subsequent articles.

We in England have never, in these matters, allowed ourselves to move at too great a rate. We are a little prone to be conventional and tidy. Teachers, particularly head teachers of elementary schools in this country, have a very wide freedom in the arrangements of their schools, but it is surprising how small, by comparison, is the number who are prepared to try out new methods either of teaching or of organizing. One is bound to acknowledge, however, that, surveying the field as a whole, there has been a very great advance. The progress, though, has been mainly in the technique of teaching rather than in the outlook of the school. But there are signs that even here a change is impending. The Consultative Committees' Reports on *The Education of the Adolescent* and on *The Primary School*, though semi-official in their origin, give clear indications of the principles on which the schools of the future must be based. And these principles

form a large part of that body of principles for which the New Education Fellowship has always stood.

To sum up, then, these are the essentials with which any education that centres round the individual must be associated. There must be greater freedom for each individual child—not a freedom to tyrannize or to enslave, much less of sheer licence—but a freedom which implies responsibility and self-control. Then there must be ample opportunities for active participation in projects of work and modes of creative self-



[Francis Parker School, San Diego, Cal.  
Individual Work in the Craft Room



expression, whether through speech, arts and crafts, music, dancing and rhythm. In an atmosphere of this kind, capacity, wherever it exists, will soon be discovered, and attainment or achievement, which hold an important place in the child's development, will be more easily reached.

Having then postulated this change of spirit and outlook, it now remains to ask in what ways the new ideas can be put into operation in the schools. Must there be a cataclysmic change in the conduct of the school? Experience shows clearly that this is not the British way of doing things. Must there be a wholesale adoption of any particular method of teaching or of organization? This again is not in accord with the genius for caution so characteristic of the British

people. It is, perhaps, a profound mistake to suppose that the practice of individual work is confined to any one method or any one plan. The truth is that any advance in these matters must depend on the conditions of building, equipment, staff and so on, in which a teacher finds himself, and which vary everywhere. Not one method can cover all cases. In some instances it has been found possible to deal with the whole school; in others, with just a class here and there. Yet again, it has been found possible to deal with a subject rather than with a class. How, in some instances, the change from class teaching to individual work has been accomplished will be dealt with in next month's article.



*The Geography Room*

*Duncan House School, Clifton, Eng.*



# International Notes

**NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION OF GREAT BRITAIN, 29, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.**

By the time the October issue of the *New Era* is in the hands of its readers, it is hoped that the office work of the Association will be well established in its new quarters. (Please note above address.)

The three years at Bloomsbury Street have been marked by much strenuous work—many new contacts, many arduous but effective committee meetings. These years have seen the marked progress of the nursery school movement in Great Britain and its beginning in Scotland. The Association owes much to those who have worked for it throughout the period in Bloomsbury Street. Miss Effie Ryle, M.A., who, during the last year has filled the positions of Acting Chairman and Organizing Secretary, has given invaluable help.

The move to Tavistock Square marks the opening of a new chapter in the history of the Association. The fact that the New Education Fellowship, the Froebel Society, the Home and School Council, and the Nursery School Association will now be housed in the same building gives promise of the increased strength which comes from the focussing of diverse influences upon the same problem from different points of view.

The Nursery School Association is fortunate in that Miss Lillian de Lissa, its Chairman, has returned in restored health to take the lead once more in the serious work that lies ahead.

It is fortunate again in that Mr. A. J. Lynch, while still working for the New Education Fellowship, has accepted the appointment of Secretary to the Association and is already in charge of the new office at 29, Tavistock Square. Mr. Lynch is well known as the late Headmaster of West Green School, Tottenham, London, as Honorary Secretary and Treasurer of the English Section of the New Education Fellowship, and as Honorary Secretary of the Committee of Enquiry that published 'The Case for Nursery Schools'. His appointment gives widespread confidence that the work of the Association will grow in extent and value both nationally and internationally during the coming year.

In answer to a question in Parliament during July, Mr. Ramsbotham, Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education, replied: 'The number of nursery schools at present recognized by the Board is fifty-six. No new proposals for the provision of nursery schools have been approved since 1st October last, but there are fifteen cases in which the provision of the schools had been approved before that date, and in which formal recognition has since been given or will shortly be given.'

During August a 'Toddlers' Play Centre on the Foundling Site was opened to London children. It was organized and carried out by Miss Hawtrey, Principal of the Avery Hill Training College, assisted by a band of voluntary workers.

## FELLOWSHIP NEWS

### Obituary—Dr. Ovide Decroly

Just as we go to press we hear that the cause of education throughout the world has sustained a loss in the passing of Dr. Decroly. Dr. Decroly had been ill for some time, and was unable to attend the Fellowship's Conference at Nice in August—the first N.E.F. Conference that he has ever missed. Our deepest sympathies go out to Mme. Decroly and family. Children have lost a great friend and the world a great teacher.



### Dr. Rotten's Lecture Tour (England)

In October, Dr. Elisabeth Rotten will lecture for the following New Education Fellowship Branches:—Bristol, 3rd and 4th October (Secretary: Miss A. A. Wilson, Duncan House, Felixstowe, Clifton Down, Bristol); Birmingham, 5th October (Secretary: Miss L. K. Lowe, The Laurels, 28 Handsworth Wood Road, Birmingham); Liverpool, 6th October (Secretary: Miss Tyson, 32 Green Lane, Mossley Hill, Liverpool); Manchester, 7th October (Secretary: Miss C. A. S. Macmillan, 176 Upper Chorlton Road, Whalley Range, Manchester).

Among Dr. Rotten's lecture titles are: 'Educational Problems in a Changing Society,' 'The Educator and Changing Society,' 'International Problems of Unemployment'. Dr. Rotten will also lecture on: 'Peace Work in Germany To-day,' at Friends' House, Euston Road, London, N.W.1, on Sunday, 2nd October, at 3.30 p.m. All are welcome.



### Dr. Monroe receives New Appointment

We are glad to learn that Dr. Paul Monroe, director of the International Institute of Teachers' College, Columbia University, and President of the World Federation of Education Associations, was in May appointed President of Robert College and of Constantinople Women's College, the two famous American institutions in Istanbul, Turkey.



## OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST

### Home and School Council

The Home and School Council is arranging an extremely interesting course of Lectures and Study Group Discussions in 'Advances in Understanding the Child.' The Lectures will be held at the Friends' House, Euston Road, London, N.W.1, and are being given by some of the most eminent of modern child psychologists in England, including Dr. J. A. Hadfield, Miss Mary MacTaggart, Professor Emile Marcault, Dr. Crichton-Miller, Dr. William Moodie, and Dr. J. R. Rees; by physiologists including



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THE HOME AND SCHOOL COUNCIL,

29 TAVISTOCK SQUARE, W.C.1.

## NICE CONFERENCE REPORT

A Report of the Sixth World Con-  
ference of the New Education  
Fellowship will be published in  
November.

Editor.....Wyatt Rawson.

Copies may be ordered in advance from  
29, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

Price.....about 7/6.



Professor Harris and Professor Winifred Cullis; and by educationists such as Mr. H. W. Howe and Dr. Basil Yeaxlee. The Courses have been carefully organized according to age groups: Group 1 will deal with infants, from birth to 4 years; Group 2 with childhood, from 4-11 years; Group 3 with adolescents, from 11-20 years. They are being so arranged that people interested in the whole psychology of the child can attend all three groups. These, which are to be led by experienced psychologists who are practised leaders of study circles, are being limited in size so that every member may have a chance of contributing to the discussion and asking such questions as he or she may wish.

This Course should be of great help and interest to all who are working among children—parents, teachers, social workers, Scout and Guide leaders, masseurs and so on. The enrolment is progressing rapidly and early application for tickets and syllabus should be made to the Organizing Secretary, Home and School Council, 29, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

## Conferences

### *University Women at Edinburgh.*

Among the 600 members of the International Federation of University Women, who attended the sixth Conference, a large proportion belonged to the teaching profession. These members were particularly interested in the educational features of the programme of the Federation, especially in the progress of exchanges among teachers, and of arrangements for giving those for whom definite exchanges cannot be arranged hospitality and assistance in countries they may wish to visit.

Group discussions dealt with the relation of university training to later life. The very different experiences of graduates from different types of universities were compared and contrasted, and a plan for fuller investigation of university methods and of professional openings for women was outlined.

In another department of education, the æsthetic, the Duchess of Atholl gave a most inspiring address on the value of music, playing a number of passages herself to illustrate her theme.

The Federation is growing in numbers and in influence and activity. The new President, who succeeds Professor Winifred Cullis, is a well-known Dutch botanist, Professor Johanna Westerdyk. She is supported by Vice-Presidents belonging to France, Poland and Austria.

### *The Tenth International Congress of Psychology.*

The Tenth International Congress of Psychology was held at the University of Copenhagen, under the presidency of Professor Edgar A. Rubin, from Monday, 22nd August to Saturday, 28th August. H.M. the King of Denmark, the Protector of the Congress, was present at the first session.

The number of delegates attending the Congress was about 500 in all, and about 150 communications

were promised. Whilst none of the papers read announced any discoveries of first-rate importance, the general level was high, and interest in the proceedings of the Congress was maintained to the end. The active British delegates included Professor C. Spearman, Professor T. H. Pear, Dr. William Brown, Dr. H. O. Jennings White, Dr. George H. Green, Dr. C. Fox, Mr. C. A. Claremont, Dr. N. Haire, Sir Charles S. Myers, Mr. Watson O'Dell Pierce and Dr. Robert Saudek.

At a meeting held at the close of the sessions, it was decided to hold the next Congress at Madrid in 1936.

### *The British Association, York, 1st-7th September.*

'A most successful programme', was the verdict of the members of Section L (Educational Science). Unfortunately the President (Mr. W. Mayhow Heller), was unable to officiate owing to illness. His presidential address on 'The Advancement of Science in Schools: its Magnitude, Direction and Sense', was read by Mrs. Heller, in the historic Guildhall, with Dr. Pickard-Cambridge in the Chair. In his address, the President considered all aspects of the question, and stressed in particular the vital importance of treating the subject as general science.

One full session was devoted to 'The Film in Education'. Sir Benjamin Gott introduced the subject, and Messrs. A. C. Cameron, R. Gow, F. A. Hoare, and J. W. Brown read papers. A demonstration of silent and sound sub-standard films for classroom purposes was much appreciated.

Four papers on 'The Scope and Equipment for Science Teachers in Senior Schools', were read by Mr. Thorpe (County Area School), Miss A. A. Scorrer (Girls' School), Capt. F. Merritt (Rural School), and Mr. F. Boothroyd (Industrial Area School).

A crowded audience listened to a symposium on: 'The Place of Science in the Education of Boys and Girls up to Sixteen Years of Age', in which Sir Richard Gregory, Sir Arnold Wilson, Mr. Donald Gray, and Dr. W. W. Vaughan presented their views.

The meetings concluded with papers on 'The Relation of Technical and Secondary Education', by Sir Percy Watkins, Mr. J. Paley Yorke and Mr. P. Abbott. Trenchant criticism of present procedure was voiced in the discussion by Mr. H. J. Hallam.

*The Fourteenth Annual Congress of the International Federation of Associations of Secondary Teachers* was held in London, on 18th to 23rd July, 1932, for the first time. Dr. W. W. Vaughan, M.V.O., M.A., D.Litt., ex-Headmaster of Rugby, presided over the Congress. Thirty-four foreign countries were represented by Government officials and delegates from the national secondary associations numbering nearly 200.

The subject of the Congress was: *Out-of-School Activities and their place in School Organization*. Other items on the agenda were: The Professional Training of the Secondary Teacher (preliminary discussion for the 1933 Congress); Report on



improvements which have taken place during the school year 1931-2 in secondary school buildings and equipment from the points of view of teaching, æsthetics and hygiene.

Many excursions were arranged, and it was felt that a real effort towards understanding and a pooling of experience had been made during the week's deliberations and social contacts.

The 1933 Congress will be held at Riga by invitation of the Latvian Secondary Associations.



### The Psychologists' Tour of Russia

From the New Education Fellowship Conference at Nice I flew to Leningrad to join a small party of psychologists enlisted for a trip through Russia. We passed through Leningrad, Moscow and Nizhni-Novgorod, and thence by Volga boat through Kazan, Samarov and Saratov to Stalingrad, whence we took train to Rostov and Kiev.

There was poverty everywhere, hardly less severe than in 1916 when I last visited Russia, but the ill-clothed people looked sufficiently fed and healthy. The workers and peasants kept their habitations clean and orderly, as did those in charge of medical and child-care institutions we visited.

The people in the streets carried themselves with an air different from that of workers elsewhere. There hung over them no fear of unemployment. As manual labourers they were the topmost social stratum. The masses look down on *bourgeois* like us, and are intolerant of non-communist ideas.

Hospitals and clinics for nervous as well as physical cases, open to all who show their local employment cards, are being multiplied—and a favourite treatment is that of work-therapy. But the crowning and most indisputable glory of the Soviet Republic lies in what is being done for children. Although the schools are made instruments of propaganda, and I object also to the enlistment of childish enthusiasm towards military ends, emotional and intellectual health seemed better guarded than in all but a few special schools in other large countries.

The Soviet educational system is narrowly utilitarian in aim, but its curriculum recommends itself to children because it keeps them in touch with things grown-ups are doing. From the kindergarten upwards, the project method is in vogue; so that academic acquisitions are everywhere developed on the basis of 'practical' undertakings. The special scheme of marrying a factory or collective farm to a school, so that each plays an active part in vitalizing the other, illustrated how good Marxianism may sometimes lead to not the less good pedagogy.

As our visit was made during the summer we were prevented from seeing in operation much above the crèches and kindergartens in whose excellent care mothers left their children when at work. Here we found modernity of method and attitude. Not but what any of them could be surpassed by many an isolated school in America or Europe; only in Russia they try to apply the modern outlook on the grand scale. That's what you can do after a revolution.

The children everywhere looked healthy—the more so as in warm weather few of them are burdened with more than a loin-cloth around their browned bodies. Best of all, they seemed absolutely fearless, as though they had never been spanked or taught piety and submissiveness. Their elders we found always warmly hospitable, but the children outdid even them in friendliness.

No one who loves children can condemn root and branch a régime which has so genuinely made child-welfare paramount to every other aim.

Pryns Hopkins



### Broadcast Talks

The British Broadcasting Corporation announces two series of talks that should be of particular interest to *New Era* readers. The first will be given at 10.45 a.m. on Fridays from 7th October to 16th December and is entitled 'A Doctor to a Mother'.

The second series will be given on Tuesdays from 8.30 to 9 p.m. from 27th September to 13th December, and will be entitled 'How the Mind Works.' The first six talks in this series will deal with child psychology and will be given by the Honorary Medical Director of the East London Child Guidance Clinic and the Medical Director of the London Child Guidance Clinic.

The autumn talks programme may be obtained free on application to the Publications Department, B.B.C., Broadcasting House, London, W.1.



### Practical Course in Play Production

In response to the request of many educational and social authorities a further week-end course of practical play production will be inaugurated at the Everyman Theatre, Hampstead, at 3 p.m., on the afternoon of Sunday, 9th October, and will continue fortnightly until December.

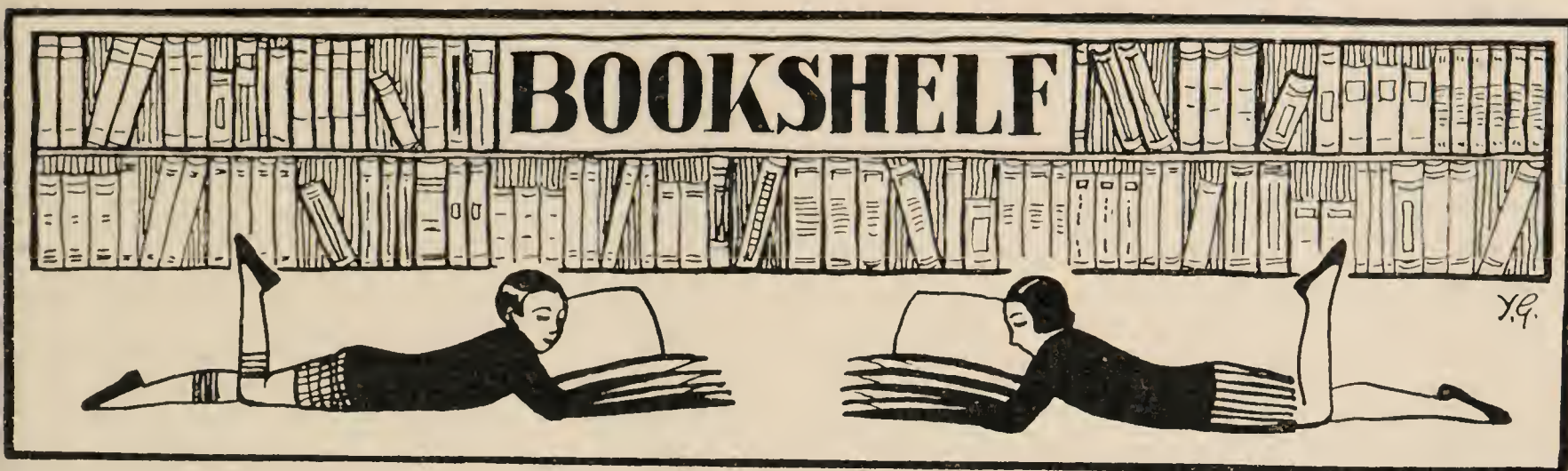
For all those who undertake the production of plays in community groups and schools or who desire further experience in acting, the Course should prove invaluable. All readers are invited to apply for a free admission ticket to the Inaugural Meeting at the Everyman Theatre at 3 p.m., on Sunday, 9th October, when demonstrations and talks on stage technique, the art of acting, stage-design and make-up will be given. Further particulars may be obtained on application to the Little Theatre, Citizen House, Bath.



### Sex Education and Mental Hygiene

A series of four film-illustrated lectures on 'Sex Education and the Child' are to be held on Tuesdays, at 11.15 p.m. (commencing 11th October) at the May Fair Hotel, Berkeley Street, London, W.1. These lectures are under the auspices and in aid of the British Social Hygiene Council and the National Council for Mental Hygiene (78 Chandos House, Palmer Street, S.W.1), from whom further particulars may be obtained.





**The Case for Curriculum Revision.** G. S. Browne. *Australian Council for Educational Research Series, No. 8.* (Melbourne University Press. 1932. 4s.)

Education in Australia is highly centralized under political control. This system has produced efficient organization, especially in rural schools, and a tradition of thoroughness in school work of which Australians are intensely proud. It has also produced an inflexibility of curriculum and a subjection to public examinations of which Australians should be intensely ashamed. Elementary-school teachers in Victoria are still using a course of study published in pre-War days. Their work is still handicapped by their having to prepare children for the Qualifying and Merit Certificates. They are still spending long hours every week instructing children in formal grammar, in theoretical arithmetic and in the history of the Early—shall we say—Plantagenets.

In the pamphlet under review the Vice-Principal of the Melbourne Teachers' College has laid down the lines for reform: 'revision should be as nearly as possible the work of the whole teaching profession. . . Much greater provision should be made in the revised curriculum for activity and constructive work on the part of the pupils. . . The machinery for revision should be so constructed that its operations should be continuous—its great task is to render the new courses dynamic, not static, in character.' Mr. Browne describes in detail a plan for curriculum revision in Victoria. He shows how—given a library and a workshop in each school—story, geography, civics, arithmetic, every subject in the time-table, can be approached through the children's natural interests and worked out through their own activity, the teacher standing by as adviser rather than director. Mr. Browne has the courage to face the examination problem and shows how the stereotyping formal examinations could be replaced by a system of Intelligence Tests and Curriculum tests on the lines of those used with success in the schools of Denver and Oakland in the United States.

English educationists will find nothing new in this report submitted to the Director of Education, Victoria, as the result of observations in Great Britain and America'. But it will be valuable to members of Local Authorities—especially to those

who have missed the moral of the *Hadow Report* and the report on *The Primary School*—and invaluable for elementary-school teachers who can hardly fail to be stimulated and may well be profitably amused by the examples of activity programmes and by the detailed specimen courses in a dozen disturbing subjects.

Roger Clarke

**The Dark Places of Education.** Willi Schohaus: translated by Mary Chadwick. (Allen & Unwin. 12s. 6d.)

This book is dynamic and therefore worth the attention of people who are alive in the true sense. The author writes of facts that have been prominent in schools all over the world, and he writes of their effect on human beings. As Dr. Schohaus's investigations were made in Switzerland, English teachers may be inclined to say: 'Well, these may have been and may still be the faults of teachers in Switzerland, but they do not apply to the English section of the profession'. And there the book might have ended its value as a contribution to progressive education in our own country. But the translation (which is curiously uneven) is backed by a foreword by Dr. P. B. Ballard, whose words with his vast experience of school life in this country cannot be lightly ignored. He writes: 'This book is written by a Swiss; but it might have been written by an Englishman, if he had possessed the same psychological insight as Dr. Schohaus. For the medicine here prescribed is not for somebody else; it is for you and me. Make no mistake about it; the dark places he describes do not exist merely in a far-off land, they are here in the schools and homes of England—here in the same number, of the same kind and with the same degree of darkness.'

The first part of the book takes the reader through the dark places of intellectualism, mis-education, discipline and through many other interesting channels of observation. Part II gives an exhibition of first-hand graphic pictures showing how the personality of the child becomes twisted and taut by the methods adopted in many schools, and how the whole mental and emotional development becomes retarded under such conditions.



Of a dark place in intellectualism he writes: 'The schools fill the heads of the children with a ballast of the most heterogeneous knowledge which, in the most favourable cases, leads to a "know-all" tendency which is far from education'. 'Yet', he says, 'the subjects of instruction are fundamentally only of indirect importance. What one achieves in the way of knowledge is insignificant in comparison with the importance of how one attains it.'

There are graphic descriptions showing how a change in the teacher through illness or other cause has meant wholesale change in the learning capacity and happiness of the children in the school. 'The most elementary, the most obvious condition which the school should achieve, is that the children will want to go there.' Some of the stories relating to corporal punishment may appear exaggerated and almost impossible in this country, but sarcasm, mockery, contempt and partiality—all of them instruments of fear—are still far too active in the hands of those responsible for the upbringing of children, both parents and teachers, and nothing is more devastating to the child or more akin to murder in the adult.

In speaking of the attitude of superiority among teachers, the author quotes Tagore: 'If you really desire to be a guide to the youth of your generation, you must refrain from all feeling of superiority. You shall be an elder brother to him, prepared to travel the same road with him towards wisdom and with aspirations towards the highest.' And why should not a teacher be a guide?

The book ends with an epilogue in which the blame for our failure to give children a really happy childhood and to make being educated a joyful thing is fairly distributed among the public, parents and politicians as well as the teachers themselves. As the public, 'we are to blame for our fear of taxation, the lack of readiness to show a spirit of self-sacrifice, especially where schools are concerned, the lack of insight that the most satisfactory capital investment for our children is the most suitable education for them.'

Everyone should read this book and it should be in every teacher's library. Finally we should like to be associated with Dr. Ballard in his tribute to the author: 'I do not know the author of this book but I salute him as one of the elect with the seeing eye and the understanding heart.'

Muriel A. Payne

### **The Reliability of Examinations: An Enquiry.**

C. H. Valentine, M.A., D.Phil. (University of London Press. 7s. 6d.)

The enquiry here set out has special reference to (a) Entrance Examinations to Secondary Schools; (b) School Certificate Examinations; (c) Awards of Scholarships to Universities. The three parts of the book correspond with these three divisions. The main topic is not whether examinations are desirable—Professor Valentine does not himself think they can be dispensed with—but whether they are reliable. After reading the book through one wonders if the

correct title should not be 'The Unreliability of Examinations', for, subject to the limitations of the conditions of the enquiry—it was only possible with such a vast amount of material to take sample, but, entirely typical, schools—it seems pretty clear that in a large measure the examinations *are* unreliable for the purposes for which they are set. 'The plain fact is that at present there is no well-established agreement as to how best to select pupils for the type of education now usual in secondary schools.' (p. 75.)

The enquiry opens with some supposed causes of the unreliability of examinations, e.g. the element of luck. In this connection it is amusing to note that 'an excellent school had had remarkable results in history with many distinctions and 98 per cent of passes over a period of five years. Then one year, with the same master in charge of the class and with boys who in their other work appeared of similar calibre to those of earlier years, there was a sudden drop in distinctions and credits and a large increase or failures. The indignant teacher indicated, as the sole change he knew of concerning history teaching in the neighbourhood, the fact that a branch of the Historical Association had been formed in the town that year!'

The enquiry proceeds to examine these supposed causes, and quotes some extraordinary cases. For example, the case of the boy who obtained 877 marks and secured the School Certificate and that of the boy who secured a total of 1,307 marks and gained neither the School Certificate nor the Matriculation. The main test of reliability used in the enquiry is how far the candidates selected to proceed to either the Secondary School or the University 'stayed the course'. The results are striking: one-tenth of the State Scholars, for example, fail to justify their awards.

The possible danger to education of some of these conclusions is frankly acknowledged in the enquiry. 'This must not, however, be taken to imply that the solution lies in restricting the number of entries into Secondary Schools. Our low correlations . . . indicate that there are still many who fail to gain admission who are worthy of a secondary education.' Professor Valentine adds that it has been suggested to him that 'an economist in education may seize on some of our findings as evidence that we ought to spend less on education after about 14 years of age. To such I would point out that, even if at present many of our awards are misplaced, the right alternative may be further education of a different kind from the present secondary school curriculum.'

The conclusions and suggestions which comprise the last chapter give a clear summing-up of the whole enquiry. It is a pleasure to say that the book appears to have been written throughout so that not only teachers but parents of ordinary intelligence may read and understand. The enquiry itself is of a type that will add much to our knowledge not only of examinations but to our work as teachers and parents. It is to be hoped that Professor Valentine will give us more of this sort of thing.

A. J. Lynch



# PARENTS AND CHILDREN

SUPPLEMENT TO "THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL"

PRICE 2d.

VOL. 1. No. 3. OCTOBER 1932

*THIS is the first number of PARENTS AND CHILDREN which has been definitely designed for use in parents' study circles and discussion groups.*

*The whole course will cover eleven months, and it has been very carefully drawn up.*

*We have been most fortunate in obtaining the help of a body of experts who have acted as a consultive committee and have planned both what subjects should be studied, who should be asked to write the main articles and the order in which these should appear.*

*This Committee, of which Dr. Maria B. Te Water of Pretoria University is Chairman, includes Dr. Boyd of Glasgow University, Mrs. Sidonie M. Gruenberg of the Child Study Association of America, Dr. and Mrs. Mitchell of the Child Guidance Clinic, Montreal, Dr. Moodie of the London Child Guidance Clinic, and Miss M. A. Payne of the Home and School Council.*

*We hope that PARENTS AND CHILDREN will be of real assistance to parents' study circles, and we shall be only too happy to give any help we can with regard to the formation and running of such groups.*

*Bulk quantities of this Supplement will be obtainable from 29, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1, at 1d. each for not less than one dozen copies ; postage extra.*

## THE WAY TO GOOD HABITS

1. If you are dissatisfied or puzzled by some habit of your child's, don't trust blindly that he will grow out of it. This is the pitfall of the lazy parent who does not face facts, and will only increase difficulties later on.
2. If you are dissatisfied or puzzled by the behaviour of your child, do realize that this indicates some lack of understanding on your part.
3. Do realize that the ideal basis for child-training is understanding, and co-operation, both between the parents and between parents and children.
4. Never discuss your child's faults in his presence and remember that for almost all little children judicious praise, or at any rate clearly shown appreciation, is good and helpful.
5. It is best when you are angry or distressed about any habit of your child's not to try to correct him then and there but to wait until you have been able to think over clearly what has annoyed or distressed you and can decide upon a definite and consistent line of action.
6. You must analyze for yourself whether his behaviour has distressed or annoyed you merely because someone else was present whom you felt would criticize you if your child behaved badly.
7. Before you say 'Don't', be sure that your child is not doing something which to-day may be a little inconvenient, but which is only indicating qualities of which you may be proud to-morrow.  
e.g. The little boy who fingers everything may be the great craftsman or scientist to-morrow, or the child who is taking chances may be the independent thinker of his generation.
8. Don't allow your child to do to-day the things for which you will scold him to-morrow.  
e.g. The cheeky three-year-old may be entertaining and you may wish to show him off to your neighbours, but when the same trait reveals itself as disobedience and rudeness at six years old you will be obliged to check it. Therefore take the big point of view in your training and see your baby as child, adolescent and man.
9. Remember that training is progressive.



# TEACH YOUR CHILD SERVICEABLE HABITS!

MARION M. MILLER

**H**AVEN'T you sometimes thought: 'Mrs. X. is so lucky—her children seem to be born good'? You see them as babies lying contentedly in pram or cot, not crying to be picked up. As toddlers they eat whatever is put before them, play contentedly whether alone or together and are already beginning to be quite a help in the house. And once they get to school they settle down so sensibly, finish off their homework without any fuss and never seem to be at a loose end either in term-time or during the longest holidays.

## Think out your Plans

We are inclined to envy the mothers of such children and even to think that they don't know half the difficulties that beset less fortunate parents. In reality, of course, there is very little luck about it. The children are lucky if you like. But the basis of their contentment is the mother's good sense in planning how best to regulate their lives, and her patience in carrying out her plans.

Let us think for a moment how these successful mothers set about the business of habit formation. In the first place, I think they realize quite clearly what they hope to do by

teaching their children good habits. For habit formation is not the be all and end all of child training. Yet it should lay the foundations of good health and self-respect on which the child can build for himself a happy and useful life.

## Good Habits save Time

Habits are ways of doing things. Once you have learned thoroughly a good way of doing anything—say peeling a potato—you no longer have to think about that thing while you are doing it, but can get ahead with planning what you are going to do next. And, what is more, the potato will probably be better and more quickly peeled than if you had been thinking hard about it all the time.

In the same way, the small child who has learnt good eating habits eats a better dinner than you will ever get the child to swallow who has to be coaxed over every bite.

Routine is built up of a chain of orderly habits, which will carry you through the necessary daily duties of ordinary life both more competently and with less effort than if you had to think over each activity as you are doing it and then decide what to do next.

## Good Habits make for Health

So the chief point about teaching a child good habits is to make sure that he will do automatically each of the things that are necessary for his own health and for the smooth running of the household. He will not forget any of these things if they are part of his daily routine. He will do them thoroughly—at first with the absorbed interest of babyhood and later as a matter of course, so as to free himself for the more important doings of a child's day.

The thoughtful loving mother will realize that this is the point of all habit formation: not that she may be able to pride herself on her perfectly drilled little family, nor that she may be able to keep her house spick and span with no litter from the children;



*Elgin laying the table*



but that the children may learn, according to their age, to do for themselves the things that must be done, quickly and thoroughly, so as to leave themselves time, both now as children and later as adults, for other more interesting sides of life.

### **Regularity breeds Contentment**

The training of infants consists entirely in habit formation. The healthy, normal new-born child can suck and swallow. We do not need to teach it to take nourishment, but by regulating the amount of each feed and the interval between them we teach him to expect and respond to a regular feeding rhythm.

The infant should be trained in an orderly round of sleep, feeding, elimination and play. Even a baby comes to have confidence in a scheme of living in which his wants are supplied at regular intervals. If he is fed in accordance with his own whims, or to suit the momentary convenience of his mother or nurse, he grows up without that essential sense of security and what is more he grows up without a proper basis of discipline.

### **Habits and Obedience**

There is a natural link between good habits and discipline. Both depend upon universal principles, not on any personal whims. If therefore a child realizes that his day is arranged according to a regular routine to which both he and his mother conform without question, he will get some idea that one does not always do exactly what one wants when one wants in this life. Thus even this very early habit formation may be made the basis both for proper obedience, which is one of the keystones of a happy childhood, and for self-discipline, which is perhaps the chief task and lesson of life.

The forming of good habits depends then upon thinking out a good and reasonable routine and sticking to it. Once the routine is



*Lacing one's boot can be an absorbing occupation*

firmly established no great harm will be done if it is occasionally broken. But whilst the child is learning we should never allow ourselves to interrupt the process under the plea of 'Just for this once'.

### **Learning must be a Pleasure**

It must be remembered however that regularity is not the only secret of good habit formation. The parent must see to it that the learning is accompanied by feelings of pleasure. During infancy the orderly carrying out of good habits brings its own pleasure or at any rate satisfaction to the infant. A dry, well-fed baby is naturally contented. I do not propose here to enter into the difficult question of rewards and punishments for the rather older child, but it is obvious that pleasure in a job well done is a better reward than a bag of sweets, and that if, by the same token, the child feels the inconvenience of a duty neglected, he will learn a far more lasting and useful lesson than if he receives some extraneous punishment.

Part of the secret of making good habits pleasurable lies in introducing them to the child at the right moment of development. If you try to make your child button his own shoes too young, he is merely baffled by the difficulty of the business. If on the other hand—



either through over-carefulness or because you are always in too great a hurry—you continue to dress him long after he should have learned to dress himself, you will find that, when at last he has to do it, he is a slow and unwilling learner, because he clings to the babyhood that you have forced upon him too long.

### Seize your Moment

But, introduced at the right moment, dressing oneself, brushing one's teeth, making one's bed, can be absorbingly interesting occupations, and a clever mother will contrive that by the time the novelty and amusement have worn off, a habit will have been formed.

It is impossible to lay down the law as to what is 'the right moment'. Even perfectly normal children vary greatly in their speed and times of development, and to try to force this growth is like prying open a bud. Many a mother has been on the verge of a nervous breakdown and many a home has become a battle-field because of mistaken ambition to train the child before it was ready to be trained.

The conscientious young mother is most in danger of falling into this mistake, and so discouraging both her baby and herself. The only



*Elgin drying her own tumbler*

and selfishness.

The older a child grows, the less feasible will the mechanical training in habits become. Indeed the adolescent, with his immensely widened interests and his absorption in activities of his own choosing, may discard most

of the habits that we have been at such pains to build up in him. But what he will not lose is his sense of security in his personal relationships with his parents and the fundamental self-respect that is the best result of all our efforts at habit formation.

[This article is illustrated by snapshots of a little girl of three and-a-half, who, when asked her name, says promptly 'This is Elgin aus Berlin.']



*Elgin is responsible for watering her garden*

way to avoid it is by watching the child's growth, and encouraging it to do things for itself, but never allowing it to grow overwearyed or disheartened with any particular attempt.

### Set them a Good Example

In habit formation, as in the major task of character training, the attitude of the parents—their example—will count for more than anything else. You cannot hope to rear tidy, punctual children in a disorderly home, much less courteous, considerate ones in an atmosphere of rudeness



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# MAKE THE FURNITURE FIT THE CHILD

PRUDENCE MAUFE

**N**OT so very long ago anything was considered good enough for the nursery. A sofa that was too shabby for the drawing-room, chairs that were losing their stuffing and pictures from the illustrated magazines were all sent upstairs with the comfortable feeling that if the children scratched and broke them it would not matter very much. Now, for various reasons, all this has been changed and the nursery in many homes is the most charming room in the house.

## Children Learn through their Eyes

The chief reason for this is that we have come to realize that children are far more affected by unconscious influences than by the moral precepts which grown-ups used to impress upon us in our upbringing. The child learns much both consciously and unconsciously through his eyes, and thoughtful parents therefore want to surround the child with suitable colours and with things whose 'line' is right. Moreover, since our children are modern children we wish them to have a natural appreciation of the form and balance of modern buildings and modern furniture, which should be the natural expression of our age.

## Keep things within their Reach

Another reason for the care bestowed on nurseries nowadays is that Dr. Montessori and others have shown how important it is that the furniture and utensils of children should be of a proper size. We can all remember sitting at our parents' table perched on cushions and volumes of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, but this it would seem is calculated to give a child a sense of inferiority. He should sit at a table of his own, on a chair of the proper height. His toys should be on low shelves or drawers, his clothes hung from low pegs, and if, as is very proper, he is encouraged to sweep out his own nursery, it should be with a broom that he can wield without too much exertion.

Most children have an innate desire to have a place of their own which they can keep tidy, and which is respected as belonging to them.

Children who keep all their possessions in a community cupboard are inclined to grow up with no particular regard for the well-being of each others' toys. The modern nursery therefore allots to each child plenty of room for its own toys and clothes, within easy reach, and thus habits of orderliness are learnt early and



*Furniture which ensures a proper posture and makes the child feel anything but inferior*



without difficulty. These habits are based upon the child's natural pride in his own belongings.

### Have your Children a Nursery?

It may be objected that in these days of flats and small labour-saving houses no separate nursery is usually to be found. Yet parents who are really lovers of children generally manage to set aside some room for their especial use, even if it means sacrificing the only spare bedroom or contriving a kitchen-dining-room. If even this is impossible at least a definite corner in a room should be set aside entirely for the children's use.

If it is agreed that children should have furniture specially designed and specially made for them, we must see to it that it should be strong and, as far as possible, harmless to the child in case of accident, for few very young children have enough precision of movement to use even small tables and chairs without occasionally knocking them over. Some of the best of modern nursery furniture is therefore being made of stout unpolished oak or chestnut which, even if upset, should not hurt the child.

### Rounded Corners

To consider some points in detail: Tables in a nursery, school- or play-room should be round-topped, i.e. cornerless, in so far as is practicable. This is desirable in itself but doubly so where running about games are to be played. There are of course many games which are definitely more playable if there is a fixed centre, and a round table in the middle of the room makes the best possible pivot for such play.

Other furniture should as far as possible have round corners too. There is quite enough for a young child to learn about the hardness of wood without there being any need for him to come into fierce contact with the man-made sharpness of it. It must be remembered that though the best kind of children's furniture



*A bed-room in which a child can learn to do everything for herself*

should undoubtedly have all its corners rounded, this will necessarily add to its cost, for thicker wood must be used to allow of enough being left, after the rounding-off of corners has taken place. In the same way knobs and handles on children's furniture should really be replaced by recessed hand-holes, as a few modern designers are doing, but this again is a little more costly than knobs.

### Good Wood and Good Workmanship

Much nursery furniture is still made of painted wood. It is cheaper than that made of plain unstained hard wood, for a coat of paint can be made to cover a multitude of sins and is often used to gloss over the less good soft woods which are very liable to warp. Natural hard wood can be more easily kept fresh and clean, for a few drops of ammonia and soapy water with a flannel, may be used on natural hard wood for a great number of years, whereas it will tend to remove cheap paint, which in any case looks shabby and worn under hard nursery use.

Drawers should run easily and doors should close tightly, for children should never be given a low standard of workmanship in these articles of daily use. Soft wood obviously does not do its job here as well as hard wood. The last point in favour of natural hard wood furniture is that



the construction can be readily seen—the dovetails are apparent. Thus the child will learn to see and appreciate both the difficulty and beauty of good craftsmanship, and the elemental quality of the wood cannot fail to appeal to his growing sense of beauty.

### A Standard of Beauty

Some people think that children should early be encouraged to design and make their own furniture from rough materials such as orange boxes and packing-cases. I feel, however, that very good soundly-constructed and well-designed furniture which is made specially for the child is of more real educative value than any transitory kind of furniture which the child can make (however ingeniously) by itself. Both kinds of furniture are perhaps necessary during the child's lifetime but the first principles should surely be laid with a high standard of beauty and efficiency, so that generation after generation may start its life with examples of the best of its kind in furniture, fit for its purpose, enduring and beautiful—a standard at which the children should aim.

To sum up shortly, nursery furniture should be (1) beautiful in line and colour, so that a child may early learn a sense of form and appreciation of good workmanship; (2) of a size suited to the child so that he may not fret

himself by trying to cope with the furniture of an adult world; (3) the personal property of the child so that he may early learn good habits of tidiness and may overcome his natural destructiveness; (4) as good in material and craftsmanship as the parents can possibly afford; (5) and this is one of the most important points of all, it must be so designed as to encourage in the child good posture.

Beds in a night nursery should never be allowed to sag in the middle and should be hard rather than over-soft. Chairs in the day nursery should be so designed as to make lounging and stooping habits unnecessary from the very first.

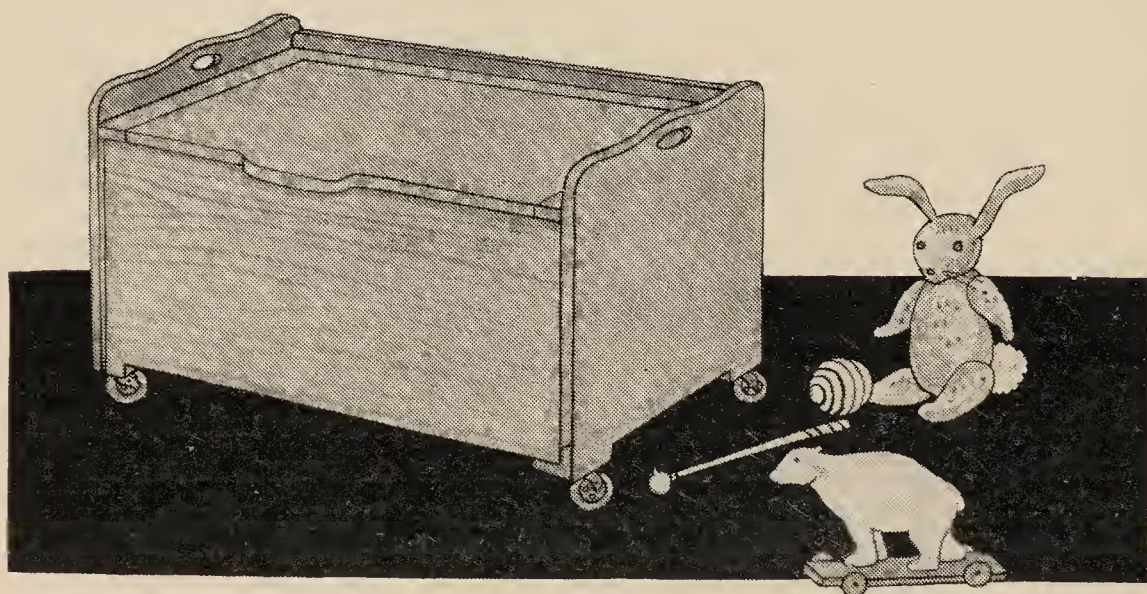
### Schools are coming into Line

These same principles hold good in furniture for schools. The old heavy benches and double desks, the sombre walls and dreary pictures, are all gradually giving place to light modern furniture easily moved about. Furniture which encourages correct posture is specially designed for the children so that it may please their eye both in colour and shape. In many up-to-date schools the old classroom has given place to a room that looks more like a study, and we find movable desks or tables and chairs instead of the old heavy furniture.

### Take Pains with their Environment!

The carrying out of these new ideas need prove no more costly than the older methods, provided the designer knows from the start what is expected of him by the thoughtful and sympathetic parent.

So this child-centred age is experimenting in discovering the best possible environment for the child, so that he may grow in grace, both in good citizenship and in acute personal appreciation of beauty.



*A Play-box like this encourages tidiness.*

*[Note rounded corners]*

*[The illustrations for this article were drawn by Mrs. Hutton from specimens of Children's Furniture that may be seen at Heals, Tottenham Court Road, London.]*



# THE NEW ERA

## IN HOME AND SCHOOL

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### Outlook Tower

THE relationships existing between parent and child and between teacher and child are of fundamental importance, because they form the basis of all human relationships in society. During the Nice Conference, several prominent educators insisted that much of our present social chaos can be traced back to wrong relationships established between parents and children. Dr. Maria Montessori, for instance, said: 'There is war between grown-up and child: between the grown-up who is strong and the child who is weak'; and she showed how, by mishandling children, adults actually engender hatred in them which may be vented on society when the child reaches maturity.

*Human Nature at Fault* In analyzing the present situation, people are too apt to blame economic causes, governments and politicians; but it is to human beings themselves that we must look both for the present state of things and for possibilities of improvement in the future. The average adult to-day is unhappy, dissatisfied, stunted, frustrated, because he is maladjusted. Maladjustment, particularly emotional maladjustment, is largely at the root of many of our social problems, both national and international. The child is father to the man, so to-day in the homes and schools of the world, we are determining the attitudes, habits, human relationships and social adjustment of the next generation. On these will depend the society of to-morrow.

When one is asked: 'What is the new education?' one generally answers, 'A new attitude towards children, a new relationship between parents and children'. But is it new? The best parents and the best teachers have always had something of this attitude in their relationships with children, but the main

difference is that to-day we need no longer be dependent upon the intuitions of an individual here and there: we can base our educational practices on definite scientific findings, the results of actual observations of children; and these guiding principles are slowly finding their way into homes and schools.

#### *Mistrust of Psychology*

This is only true as yet of a small section, even of the educated community. Numberless children are still being crucially mishandled by the adults who are responsible for them—not through any cruelty of intention, but through ignorance of the simple principles of child psychology. We cannot rest content until these are made available to all parents and teachers in a form suitable to their complete understanding.

Thus, the new education is based on psychology. Psychology is a comparatively new science and naturally there have been different schools of thought, controversies and differences of opinion as to its application in school and classroom. At times, the disciples of a particular leader of psychological thought have done much harm by over-emphasizing certain aspects of his teaching and applying them fanatically. This is particularly true of the schools of the psychology of the unconscious. In the beginning, many of the observations were made from abnormal patients, and there was perhaps too great haste to deduce certain principles on insufficient data.

These deductions were unpleasant, and most normal people refused to face the possibility of their actions and motives being the results of causes which were painful to contemplate. In any case, British people are on the whole averse from psychology, perhaps because the Britisher is reserved and resents the possibility of anyone knowing him too well. He



refuses to think clearly about emotional matters; he dislikes being analyzed and pigeon-holed, and consequently for some years psychological discoveries mainly interested specialists, faddists and a few people who thought it modern or fashionable to use psychological terminology.

In addition, experts have largely confined themselves to their own field, taking little pains to apply their findings to actual practice in home and school. Their books, lectures and articles are full of terms too abstruse for the layman; these put him off and make him feel that there is a great deal of jargon and that he has always been able to manage his children in his own way without psychology. In fact, the Head of a large public school for boys once said to me: 'Psychology? What do I need to know any psychology for? I either know how to handle boys or I do not, and if I do not, no amount of psychology would teach me to do so.'

But to-day the position is rapidly changing. It is interesting to compare Dr. Boyd's summary of the activities of the Psychological Commission at Elsinore, in which he reported very divergent views among members and only dimly foreshadowed some future agreement upon principles, with Dr. Moodie's statement at Nice, three years later. 'While the members naturally stressed views which, in the first instance appeared to diverge, closer discussion revealed *in every instance* merely differing points of view, with an underlying agreement on principles'.

### *The Psychology of Freedom*

When it is remembered what strides have been made in physical hygiene in the course of the last hundred years, we may look forward to immense advances in this new science of mental hygiene in the course of the present century. Modern child psychology deals mainly with two things: the individual development of the child, his adjustment to life and to other people; and the adult and his attitudes to and relationships with children. All modern psychologists urge that the child should be free to develop as an individual, but there is a great deal of disagreement as to what exactly we mean by freedom. Freedom is certainly not attained by the man who sets out to do exactly as he likes, regardless of his neighbours. The

nearest approach to freedom is found by the man who can co-operate fully and freely with his neighbours. This is one aspect of the old paradox that in renunciation man finds his highest fulfilment. No human being can consider himself as an isolated unit. Everything he thinks and does and feels reacts on those around him, just as everything in his environment reacts on him, consciously or unconsciously.

In considering the question of freedom for a child, one should think out carefully his relationship to his environment and the kind of environment in which he can best develop.

It is no use scolding a child for writing on a wall if you have not provided him with blackboards or other material on which he can draw and scribble at the stage when this is a necessary part of his development. It is no use scolding a child for carving a piece out of your sideboard or hammering a nail into your Chippendale table if you have not provided him with tools and wood. It is no use complaining that your adolescent boy or girl is growing further and further away from you if you have not made a practice, from the very beginning, of being your child's friend, so that he may frankly and easily talk to you of his problems and difficulties. It is no use complaining of the gulf between the generations if you have ceased to grow mentally and emotionally yourself.

The extreme school believes that we must allow a child complete freedom to develop like a 'flower in the sunshine'. Others think that this is licence rather than freedom, and may lead to the formation of a child or adult who is not free at all, because he is a slave to his own vehicles of self-expression, particularly in the realm of the emotions. It is generally agreed that certain simple rules should be carried out, both in the care of the body and in one's relations with other people, and it is very unwise to thrust a decision on a young child as to whether he shall or shall not conform to these rules. In studying the importance of habit formation, we realize that as much as possible of the ordinary routine of life should be relegated to the realm of habit—things which affect physical health, such as cleanliness, hours of sleep, elimination, feeding, exercise. In a similar way should be regarded things which affect our surface relationships with other people—tidiness, order,



punctuality—which make for good citizenship.

Complete licence is likely to raise a generation of anarchists, unable to adjust themselves to community living, and therefore unhappy. On the other hand, the old-fashioned type of discipline through repression, fear, punishment, external authority, produces either nonentities, repressed and frustrated personalities, or, in the stronger individuals, rebels against all authority, who are also unhappy.

And so we find in mental hygiene to-day a body of general principles which can be studied, and which will help us in the guiding and educating of our children; a few principles, for instance, in habit formation, concerning children's reading, or concerning the changes that take place at puberty. Psychology also has much to teach us about the importance of the parent-child relationship and the extent to which it is affected by the husband-wife relationship in the home. Probably one of the most arresting aspects of this whole question is, that the more we know we more we realize that it is what we are in ourselves that is going to affect our children, and not what we tell them to be or to do. It is unpleasant because it is so difficult and so tiresome to have to take ourselves in hand, and yet perhaps our study of child psychology may result in our discovering much about ourselves and, if we choose, in making us better adjusted and happier individuals.

#### *Mental Hygiene and the Home*

Modern psychology has done much to engender a saner view concerning the place of sex in life. No longer is this a tabooed subject, nor need it be an over-emphasized one. Free and frank discussion with children on biological processes, on emotional reactions, on love and hate relationships, on apparently unconscious reactions, should help them to be individuals who are able to face reality and who are not driven to a realm of fantasy. The home is of course of primary importance, for character is more or less formed during the first five years of life, and it has been proved that many of the repressions of parents to-day, many of their motivations, can be traced to happenings during the first five years of life. It is essential for every child to have security and love in the early years.

We teachers realize the great difference

between children coming from homes where there is a normal, happy family life and the right kind of environment for a child, and those coming from homes in which there is friction, disharmony, maladjustment, repression. We must be particularly careful not to project upon the child our own maladjustments. The mother, for instance, who is unhappy in her own marital relationship and who therefore overloads her son with love, is seriously harming the child. The father or mother who has a love of power and exploits it in the home, is harming the children. The parent who is uneven and temperamental in her treatment of children is also harmful. The parent who allows a child to be undisciplined, to develop temper tantrums, to be an egoist, is harming him.

#### *Mental Hygiene and the School*

These principles, however, apply equally in the classroom, and the teacher who studies the new psychology will also find that it is what he is in himself that matters. The most important factor in his teaching is not what he teaches, but the kind of relationship he can establish between himself and his pupils. Here again, he must be on his guard against compensating through the children for deficiencies in his own life. The teacher with a lurking sense of failure will tend to be a pompous bully in the classroom. In the light of mental hygiene we shall have to revise very carefully the recruiting of our teaching staffs, for it becomes more and more evident that mental attainments are not sufficient qualification for the handling of young children, and that a well-balanced personality is a vital factor.

Domination through fear, both in home and school, is inexcusable, carping criticism equally so. A child must have confidence in himself, and therefore the teacher should not suggest to a child that he cannot do a thing, but should rather encourage him along the lines he is good at and gradually help him to do better on the side he finds more difficult.

The new type of school gives many opportunities for the children to co-operate in the general discipline, thus learning self-discipline. There are many opportunities for creative self-expression, whereas in the older type of school subject-matter has been too much based on



mental development and has been inclined to starve the emotional nature. We have come to realize that every child is an individual and that there is no greater crime than an attempt to standardize human nature by trying to fit the child to the school or to a system. It is quite possible in most schemes of education to allow a considerable amount of opportunity for individual rates of development. Mental tests have shown the great differences between child and child. It is useless to demand of a child of 13 with an I.Q. of 101 what you demand of a child of 13 with an I.Q. of 90 or 120. And so, in modern schools, more and more time is being allowed for individual work; old class-teaching methods are being modified, standards and forms are not rigid as they were. It is disheartening to a child to work in a set group for all his subjects, for if he is weak in mathematics he feels inferior, or if he is in advance of the others in English, he is not called upon to make his maximum effort.

The new psychology also teaches us that there must be changes in our examination system, and in the curriculum to allow for individual differences. The artist, the organizer, the craftsman, who may not be good in academic subjects, will find in the modern school opportunities for developing along his own lines, while realizing his value to the community.

#### *Mental Hygiene and the Healer*

And so mental hygiene has much to give to educational practice and method. Strictly speaking, there is no such thing as the normal child or adult. We are all slightly abnormal. It is a question of cause and degree. But any marked deviation from the norm of conduct should be carefully studied. Punishment, particularly corporal punishment, but roots the evil deeper. We now have clinics where experts help us to discover the cause of maladjustment. It is important that any marked maladjustment should be treated early. There is a growing feeling also, that the school of the future should have a practical psychologist on the staff who will be able to make observations on the behaviour of children.

There is much controversy still as to the place of psycho-analysis in the treatment of children. There is probably a place for analysis

in very special cases, but this should be left to the experts, for much harm can be done by amateur analysts. But there is a very great value in analysis to a teacher. 'Know thyself' is an ancient teaching and one which is of great importance to an educator. For only in so far as we are free personalities ourselves can we hope to establish an atmosphere of freedom around the children in our charge, an atmosphere in which they can grow and develop.

At Nice, experts in the various branches of psychology gave courses. These will be reported more fully in the Conference Report which is shortly to be published. We are fortunate in obtaining the co-operation of a number of psychologists, forming a panel of advisers for the course of studies we are publishing month by month in the Parents' Supplement of the *New Era*. This, though primarily intended for parents, will also contain much of value to teachers. Dr. Te Water of Pretoria, teacher, medical woman, psychologist and sociologist, is the chairman of this panel of advisers. The supplement will be sold separately at a small cost, and we hope that it may form a basis for parent-teacher study groups. For we realize increasingly that the education of a child cannot be divided into water-tight compartments—education at home and education at school—but that there must be close co-operation between parents and teachers.

A psychological commission has also been formed within the Fellowship, of which Dr. Moodie, Director of the London Child Guidance Clinic, is chairman. Through courses, lectures, articles and books we hope gradually to spread a knowledge of the guiding principles of human growth and development in a form sufficiently popular for the layman. In no subject is there more need for balance, for saneness, for commonsense. There must be no over-emphasis and not too much dissection. The child's personality is deserving of all respect, and we as educators can make or mar the future generation by our handling of the children in our care. More and more we feel that psychology will not be used only for remedial purposes, but as a preventive measure, so that we may, through wise handling of children, rear a loftier race.



# Ovide Decroly—An Appreciation

1871-1932

A GREAT teacher leaves probably more mourners than the majority of men, for he has touched upon so many lives during their most impressionable time, and those who knew him as children remember him with love and gratitude however widely life may have separated them in later years.

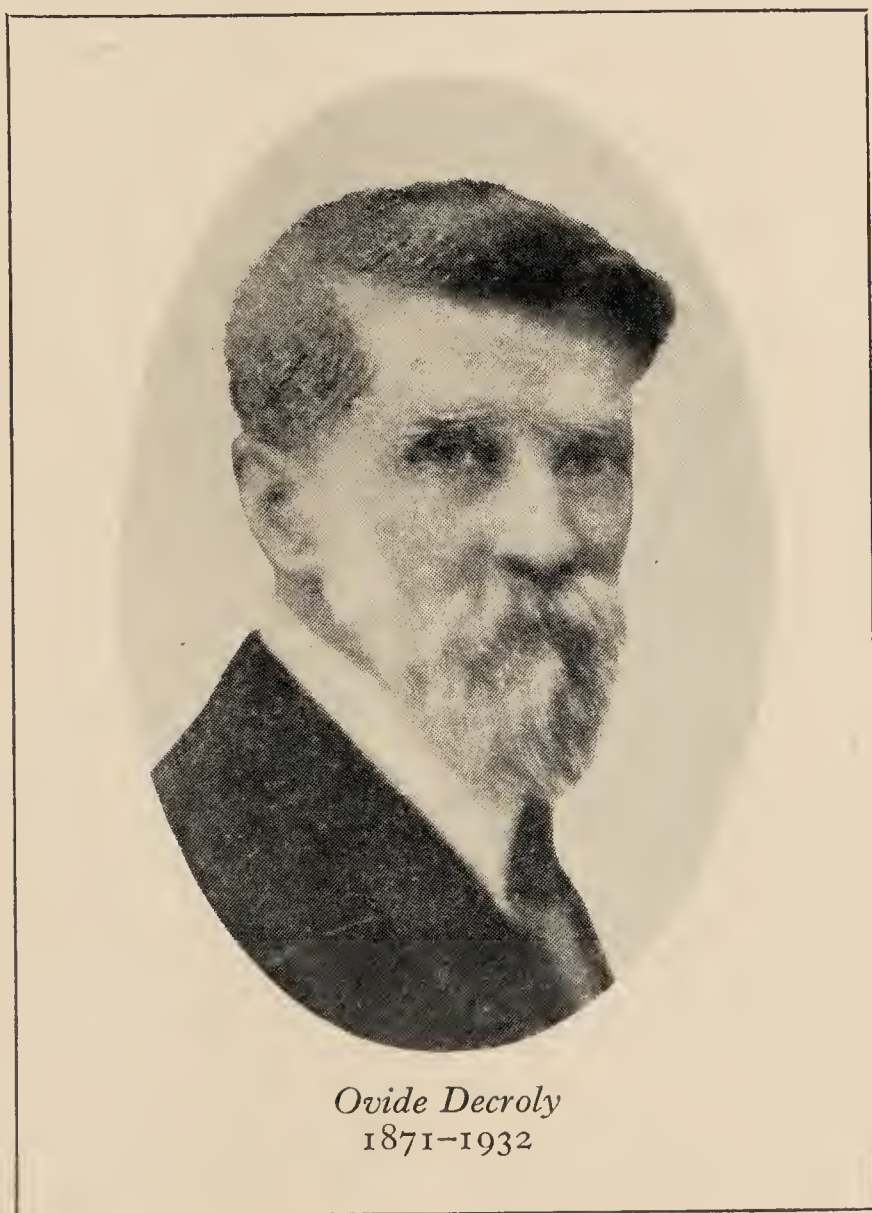
But few men will be regretted by so wide and diverse a circle of friends as Ovide Decroly, who died suddenly this September, in an open field, at the age of sixty-one. He had an amazing breadth and range of interest. Physician, scientist, psychologist, teacher, philosopher, he was intimate with many groups who had few other points of contact. He was a great and practical internationalist, and, in his wide travels in the Old World and the New, acted as ambassador of all that is best in modern educational thought. There was nothing superficial or transitory about these contacts that he made. He brought to all his doings direct simplicity and singlemindedness. Wherever he went he made, not converts, but friends, who were prepared to share with him, as good friends do, not only the spark of his enthusiasm, but also the labour of putting his ideals into practice.

We of the New Education Fellowship must remember him first and foremost as one of our oldest and staunchest supporters. He was prevented by ill-health from being with us at Nice, but this was the first of our Conferences that has been held without his presence. At Calais, at

Heidelberg, at Montreux, at Locarno and at Elsinore he addressed crowded meetings. People gathered to hear at first hand an *exposé* of the Decroly method. But he was always eager to disclaim any title as inventor of a method. He did not pretend to have discovered an infallible formula for the proper education of children. Had he lived to be ninety—which, alas, he did not—he would never have considered himself to have said the last word on any aspect of child training.

This disavowal was not due merely to the modesty of a great man. It was of the very essence of his thought. It was com-

pounded of the patient seeking after truth of a scientist, and of the sensitive, gentle mind of the child-lover. For no one who really loves children can bring himself to dogmatize about them and their needs. And only a lover of children, and a profound brooder over their needs, could have evolved



Ovide Decroly  
1871-1932



Decroly's philosophy of education—*l'éducation pour la vie par la vie*.

He did not set out to teach things to children which might be useful to them 'later on'. He was not bent upon equipping them for some strange adult destiny, remote from their experience as children, but for which they must uncomprehendingly prepare. He took the child—the whole child—as he stood, normal or abnormal, and enabled it, through its five senses, its memory, its reasoning power, the native energy of its limbs and the creative energy of its mind and emotions, to *realize* the world about it and to prepare itself, through its own sense of life, for all the demands that life would make upon it.

This conception is simple and real, as life might be if poor man had not learnt to torture both life and himself. Decroly set out to enable the living child to learn through life itself to live abundantly. Like other great educationists, he began his researches upon abnormal and neurotic children, and was so successful in helping them to make the most of their handicapped powers that he was asked to open a school for normal children.

Born at Renaix in 1871, Decroly was educated at Malines and at the University of Ghent. He served an apprenticeship as assistant and clinic worker under some notable professors; took his doctor's degree with high distinctions in 1896; went, on a travelling scholarship, to Berlin and to practise neurology at *la Salpêtrière*, and finally settled in Brussels in 1899.

He opened his own school for abnormal children—still a very full and active Institute in the Chemin de Vossegat, Uccle—in 1901, and his school for normal children, *l'Ermitage*, in 1907. Since then his chief, though by no means sole, preoccupation has been with this school and with the public schools of Brussels.

As a pedagogue he worked upon intelligence tests and vocational guidance and evolved the 'centres of interest' for which the Decroly Method is renowned. These he based upon

the interests of primitive man—food, shelter, clothing and so on, for he saw in the growing child a recapitulation of the experiences of the race.

But I prefer to think of his conception of globilization as the achievement of a philosopher and of one very intimately attuned to the currents of modern life and thought. He recognized and deplored the growing departmentalization of life during the past century and a half. This departmentalization has invaded education to an extreme degree. Reading has been taught from the A.B.C., writing from pot hooks, numbering from small and meaningless sums, history from dates, geography from lists of towns and rivers, languages from grammatical rules. Is there any wonder that children so educated failed to gain any sense of wholeness in life; that they continued this process of division—weekdays from Sundays, work from pleasure, morality from love?

Decroly saw that the fragmentary and the unrelated lacks meaning—that life itself is meaningless if it lacks coherence. So he set out to ensure to children a coherent childhood, in which learning to read *is* reading, learning to write *is* writing, learning to number *is* numbering and learning to live *is* living.

When this vision of his is the basis of education throughout the earth, then we may hope to establish a unity of the nations, based upon no pacts or covenants but upon the globilization of life, the intimate sense in every man that he is at one with himself and his fellows.

So, while we shall all remember Decroly as a man, his kindness which deserved the old epithet 'loving-kindness', his simplicity, his tireless work, the penetrating gentleness of his way of living, we shall each, too, remember some aspect of his thought which seemed to us particularly illuminating. And for me this aspect will always be his almost prophetic sense of the one-ness of life.

BEATRICE ENSOR



# Newer Attitudes to Behaviour

PSYCHOLOGY is emerging from the laboratory, and like many other sciences, is contributing to the well-being of the man in the street. Much of the work of the psychologist is, and will continue to be, extremely technical and quite above the heads of any but the specialists. And even that part of it which is fully within the grasp of the non-specialist does not offer him any ready-made answers to problems of behaviour which bother him in himself, his pupils or his children, or to the major problems of social adjustment. What it does offer him is a way of regarding such problems in a more or less impersonal light, and the reassurance that they arise from common and remediable defects of mishandled human nature.

We propose here to make a résumé of the most practical points that were emphasized by some of the psychologists at the Nice Conference.

## The Home is All-Important

Dr. Te Water thinks that almost the most important and satisfying thing in life is to take your place usefully in the work of the world. One of the most vital forms of work is that of parents and teachers, who are responsible for helping children to find their feet in life, to gain status, and so to develop from individuals into persons. This process of turning from an individual into a person, through a conscious gaining of status in your group, is a very important one if you agree with Dr. Te Water that the best definition of society is 'not a collection of individuals but an integration of persons'.

The relationship between parent and child is basic. It is the only inherently permanent relationship of life. Neither death nor desertion can destroy it. This is why it is so necessary that the attitude of parents to children and of children to parents should be a right one. The child

first gains status in the home and it is essential that he should feel himself to be an integral part of the family, not merely a sort of appendage. The attitudes that he builds up in home and school will be either constructive or destructive and will determine his attitude to society in later life. Thus parents and teachers are directly responsible for the child's contribution to the unknown future. They do not know what type of situation he will be called upon to

face, but they do know that his manner of facing it will be a direct outcome of their own attitudes to him and to each other. It is what the parents *are*, not what they say, which will mould the citizen of the future.

## Psychological Difficulties of the Teacher

Dr. Pryns Hopkins carries this same argument into the schoolroom. The most lasting lessons there will be those that depend not upon the learning but upon the personality of the teacher, and Dr. Pryns Hopkins sorts out some of the common personality difficulties which may lead a teacher to give way to impulse in his handling of pupils—against his better judgment.

Among these are (a) the tendency, especially among women teachers, to treat a younger person as a suckling infant, so hampering his growth. Teachers find this fault hard to bear when they meet it in over-anxious parents, but they do not always recognize it in themselves; (b) a tendency to mould the child—to deprive him of initiative, of the natural independence and energy of his intellectual development and of his freedom to create. The parent or teacher who seeks to mould the child forfeits his natural rôle of counsellor, because the child learns to be on his guard against undue influence and withdraws his confidence; (c) a reliance on words rather than deeds, which Dr. Pryns Hopkins traces to magic or religious beliefs in the Word as the source of life; (d)

*Specialists at Nice stressed the fact that psychology has practical help to give in the ordering of human relationships in home, school and society. This article contains some of the points made by Dr. Te Water, Dr. Pryns Hopkins, Dr. Laforgue, Mrs. Logan, Mr. Earle and Frau Meuter.*



cruelty, which may find its expression in moralizing no less than in corporal punishment, and which is unerringly recognized by the child; (e) pride (whether in the form of ambition, self-love or exhibitionism) which will lead the teacher to put undue pressure upon the children so that they may do him or her credit; (f) the ideal pattern which the teacher holds up for himself. This, at its best, manifests itself as self-respect, but if the ideal be unattainable the teacher will cease his attempts to live up to it personally and will try to impose it upon the children. The great danger of this is that the children will be forced to do things from a sense of duty instead of from a sense of love.

Dr. Pryn's Hopkins sees in love the most potent means of bringing the best out of pupils and in curiosity the only real motive for learning. Thus his decalogue for the teacher contains only two clauses: love your pupils and whet their curiosity.

#### Self-Martyrdom and Punishment

Dr. Laforge pleaded for a close co-operation between psycho-analyst and teacher, each of whom has much to learn from the other. We have space here for only two of the examples he gave of ways in which a knowledge of the principles of psycho-analysis may be of practical use to the teacher. First he discussed at some length the child who carries over his inner conflict into his everyday life and who tends to reproduce the same unhappy situation, whatever his surroundings. Such a child will seek always to suffer and fail rather than to be happy and succeed. This type of neurosis is far commoner than is generally supposed, and Dr. Laforge urges that a good teacher, familiar with the psycho-analytic aspect of the problem, should be able to recognize it, and tackle its cure with high hopes of success.

His second point was the thorny question of punishment and its effect upon the child. He showed that *in principle*, punishment is and remains a necessary evil, and that the best the teacher can do is to administer it, not blindly, but with a full understanding of what he is doing. 'Many teachers, from the goodness of their hearts, imagine that punishment can be abolished. They do not realize that, in certain

cases, it plays a curative part and that certain children, when deprived of punishment, go so far as to inflict the most cruel punishments on themselves, unknown to their associates and even to themselves.' Dr. Laforge, who is not, of course, pleading for the old indiscriminate dealing out of cuffs and blows, urged teachers to read Anna Freud's study of the problem of punishment.

#### Mental Hygiene in the School

Teachers may feel rather overwhelmed at having thrust upon them, in addition to all their other duties, this obligation to notice, and help rectify, traits in their pupils which, if unrectified, will store up for them all sorts of miseries and inadequacies in their adult life. Yet, as Mrs. Logan pointed out, the responsibilities of the school *are* being widened, and in just this direction. Mrs. Logan is herself a psychologist attached to the Winnetka Schools. So far in England, Frensham Heights is the only school which numbers a trained psychologist among its staff. There are many such in America, and their duties include not only the regular 'testing' of the children, but also a general supervision of their emotional and social development.

Mrs. Logan reminds us that the schools began as simple places for memory training—places in which children could learn the 3 R's as necessary tools in their task of earning their living. It was slowly recognized that it was no use turning out children who could read and write and figure if their eyesight had been strained and their health impaired in the process of learning. Thus the schools took over the responsibility for the physical hygiene of the child.

Mrs. Logan now insists that the schools must go a stage further. They must ensure to the children not only literacy and physical health, but also social and emotional adjustment. This will involve a re-evaluation of the duties of the class-teacher, who must see to it that every child is given a proper feeling of security and at least some sphere of activity in which it will earn a sense of achievement and success, as well as scope for co-operative work and play.

Mrs. Logan says that it is sometimes objected that the schools are taking over too many of the



responsibilities of the home—but this is nonsense. Medical inspection has not relieved the home of the duty of caring for the children's health, it has shown how best the energies of the mother may be employed in this direction. In the same way, a careful consideration of the emotional development of the child, and co-operation between teacher and parents over any difficulties that may arise, will increase rather than diminish parental responsibility for the well-being of the whole child. But, in cases where the home-background of the pupil is hopelessly inadequate to his needs, the school will be able to ensure that for four hours a day the child is in an atmosphere of understanding and trust and love which will 'enable him to withdraw from other and unfortunate influences and to weather the storm'.

#### The Reorganization of Secondary Education

Mr. Earle outlined yet another sphere in which the school must shoulder responsibility: that of vocational training and guidance. He attacks the ideal of 'general culture' which at present obtains in our secondary education and in the examinations which terminate it. He objects that only a very small percentage of children have a general all-round learning capacity. 'We can either seek to develop to the highest degree the child's strongest abilities to the comparative neglect of his weaker ones, or we can try to eliminate his weak points at the expense of his strong ones. In theory we have aimed at developing all together; in practice we have failed, except where weakness has been due to the lack of suitable training at some earlier stage. No one has succeeded in developing high proficiency in an individual who lacks the capacity to learn.'

Mr. Earle argues that the aim of post-primary education should be 'to make it possible for pupils who have abilities in one direction to develop them to the highest possible stage, and at the same time to carry on their other work on which their abilities are low, until they reach a stage which may seem desirable in connection with their general environment'. He claims that our old theory of 'general culture' as the basis of secondary education was sound enough in training for the professions because, paradoxical though it may seem, the more highly

specialized a man's profession, the broader is the basis of general education he needs, for highly complex occupations call into play a high degree of inter-relation between abilities, whereas simpler occupations demand a high degree of specialized skill. 'Those who become the highest experts in different walks of life require a general education in order to specialize in their job. . . . So any demand for a broad, general education must be based on the fact that it is necessary for high efficiency at a later stage, and if the individual is not going to be highly efficient in a professional life at a later stage, then we have no right to demand for him a broad, general education of the type we have been demanding as essential for every one.'

#### Vocational Guidance and Society

Mr. Earle is pleading, as a psychologist, for a complete revision of our conception of secondary education. He is considering the new science of vocational guidance. He is looking forward to the time when we shall have devised tests which will sort out the minority of children who are capable of carrying on highly specialized professional work from the vast majority who should be employed in doing the general work of the world. He urges that once we have achieved this, the small former group should be given a wide, general education, which will be essentially vocational, and they will find *in their profession* their cultural life. The latter and much larger group must be helped to bring to a fine pitch of competence their special abilities, so that they themselves will benefit by a high sense of achievement, and the community will benefit by their special skills. But it must be recognized that their work will not usually ensure to them a cultural life. Their specialized education must therefore be supplemented by training in handcraft, drama, music, which will give their creative abilities outlet, and will open the road to a creative use of leisure-time in adult life.

In this work of Mr. Earle's we see an example of psychology applied to the solution of a major social problem. For vocational guidance, once it is perfected as a diagnostic science, should prove to be a means of breaking down the snobbish distinction that now exists between different kinds of work. We shall no longer find



the sorry ambition to be a 'black-coated worker' dominating the child's choice of a career, but instead, every child will be helped to determine, while at school, the sort of work for which he is best fitted and will be given an education that will equip him for that kind of work and for a creative use of his leisure hours.

### Group Psychology—the Struggle for Power

Frau Hanna Meuter gave another example of how psychologists are investigating social problems. She pointed out that we are only at the beginning of the study of Group Psychology. Frau Mathilde Vaerting's work in this field opens a new chapter in the investigation of the power relationship between groups and its effect upon the psychology of the individual. Frau Vaerting distinguishes five spheres in which there exists a struggle for power between two groups. There is a struggle between the classes, the sexes, between different generations and between nations and races. In all these spheres we find two parties, one subordinate to the other, one ruling, the other ruled, one group accustomed to command and the other to obey.

It is a peculiarity of this relation that the ruling group is much more anxious to keep the subject group in subjection than to enjoy particular privileges itself. In consequence the rulers do all they can to maintain or even increase the contrast between themselves and those they rule. The weapons they use are not only economic and political, but spiritual as well. Culture is made the exclusive prerogative of the ruling group, and education is either denied to the other group or so limited in scope and differentiated in character as to increase, rather than diminish, the gulf that separates the two. Thus secondary and higher education were at one time the preserve of one particular class, and were denied to women, to subject races and to the children of the working man.

The whole movement of society in the Twentieth Century has been in the direction of substituting for this ruler-subject relation one of equal partnership. The gulf that once separated employer from employee, man from woman, parents from children and subject races from ruling races, grows smaller every day. Where the old relationship continues, the

individual tends to be considered only as a representative of the rôle he plays in society. He is master or servant, teacher or pupil. His own individuality is lost in the function he is called upon to perform. The new relationship grants to the individual his own status apart from that of the group or class to which he belongs.

### Education in Give-and-Take

Two forces are making for the elimination of the present gulf that still divides society into two groups—one the desire for power in the subject group, the other the desire in both groups for autonomy, for self-determination. Education should make every effort to further the second of these two tendencies. In the Nineteenth Century the mother-child, or teacher-pupil, relation was considered largely in terms of power. The mother, or teacher, slapped or beat her children. Sometimes to-day the position is reversed. The child tyrannizes over its parents or its teacher. The one situation is as bad as the other. We need the development of a new attitude altogether, not a mere reversal of the old relationship. Education must insist upon equality of rights, equal partnership, a mutual give and take, from which the power factor is as far as possible eliminated. Only so will it usher in a new world based upon a new conception of common rights and mutual collaboration between all the groups of which society is composed.

We hope that this summary of some of the psychological papers given at the Nice Conference,\* brief though it is, may indicate how psychologists are tackling some of the leading questions of the day. They are no longer exclusively concerned with abnormalities of human behaviour. They have much light to shed upon our normal actions and reactions. So the ordinary man, who used to regard psychology with mistrust and even disgust, must overcome his earlier prejudices and must realize that he can find in this science much-needed help, both in the ordering of his personal life, in the training of his children, and in the reconstruction of society.

\* These will be published at greater length in the Conference Report.



## La Maison des Petits—II

‘ . . . Nothing here is at a standstill; nothing is set; nothing is orthodox. Nothing makes any pretence at being the final solution of any educational problem.

‘The big classroom and its walls almost give one the impression of being a pedagogical museum. Here are Froebel games and pursuits, yet the little chairs are Montessorian and the tables, though somewhat modified, are of the same origin. But over there is Decroly play material and the walls are hung with English Nature Study charts and these pictures of the history of navigation surely come from Miss Dopp of Chicago.

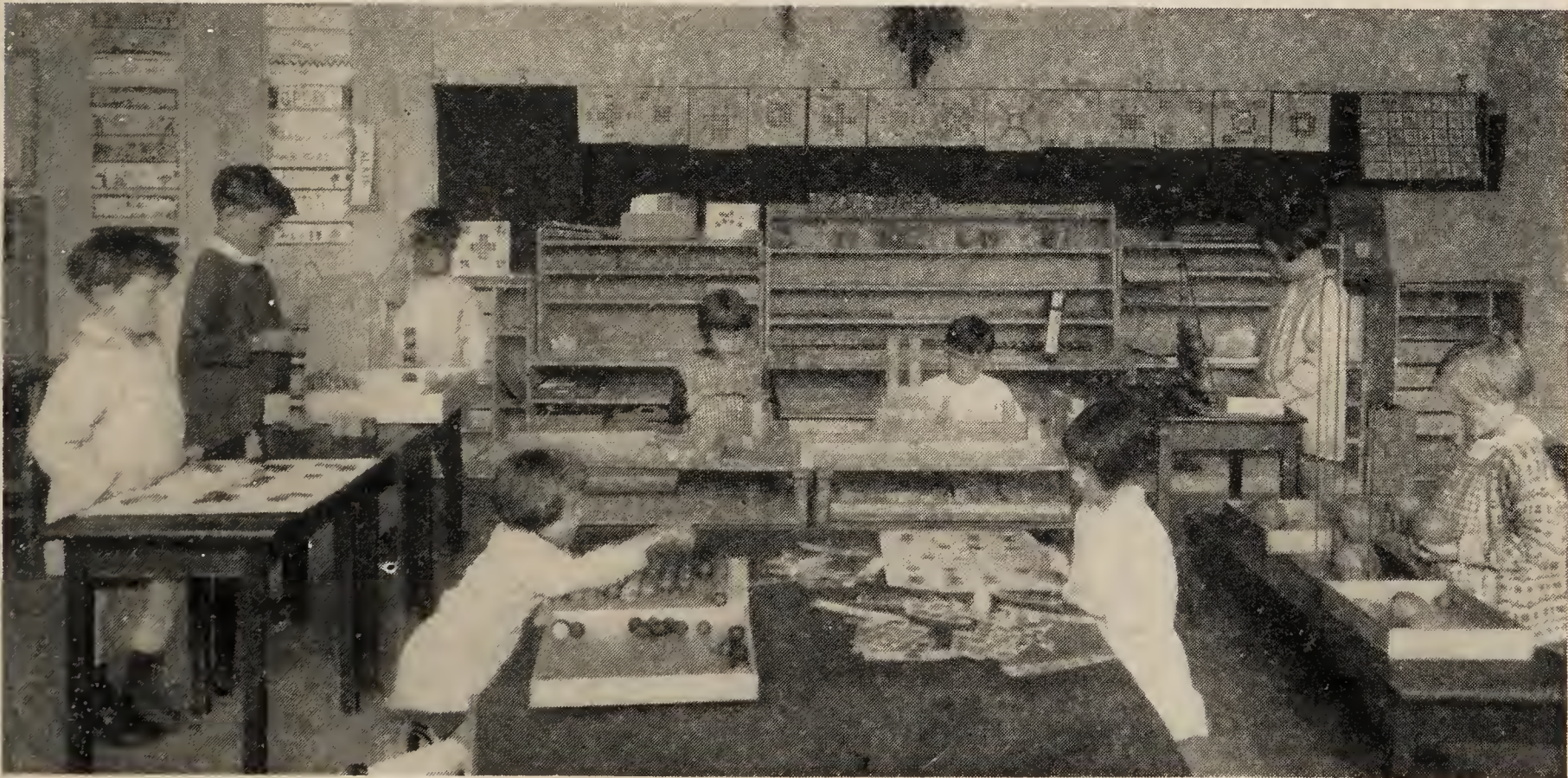
‘Do not imagine, however, that everything is of foreign origin. One is struck by the number of playthings that are neither Froebel nor Montessori nor Belgian nor American, but designed in Geneva and made by Asen.

‘If you spend a morning in observing the work of the school you will be all the more struck by this combination of thoughtful borrowing and originality. Take for example the sessions on Mondays and Fridays, and the stories told by the mistress, the old songs care-

fully learnt and the verses made up by the children themselves, the gymnastic exercises, done to a pianoforte accompaniment, the training of attention and observation by means of pictures in which details can be changed, the periodic silent lessons, the training in suppleness of language—in all these elements of a richly varied curriculum you will recognize borrowings from all sorts of different places, intermingled with teaching that has not quite its counterpart anywhere else.

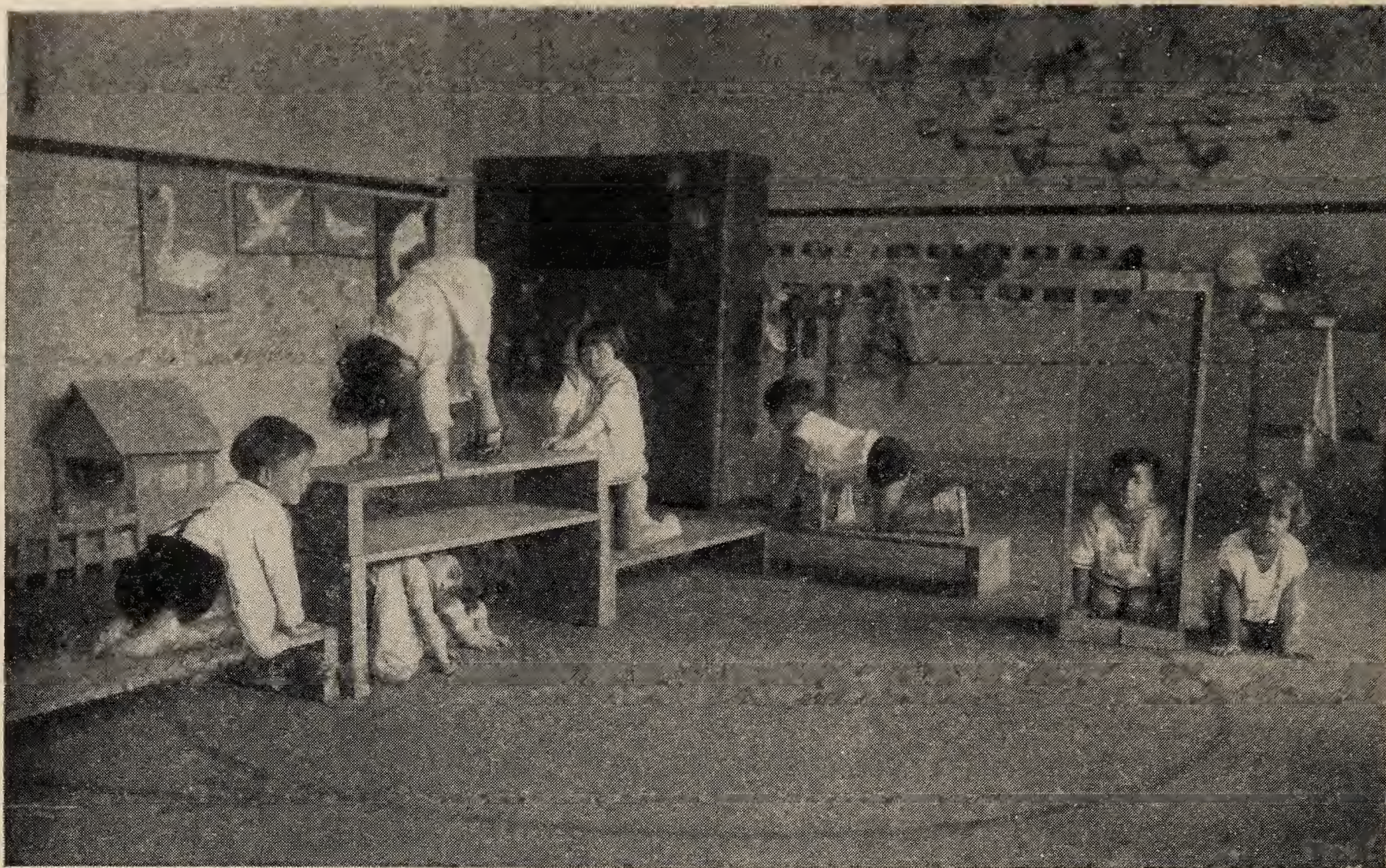
‘ . . . At each stage in the process of evolution Milles Audemars and Lafendel claim that they have done nothing but follow the lead given by the children themselves. It is the children who have shown them the road, blazed the trail, made the discoveries. All that was left for the teacher was to use and systematize their ideas so that others might profit by them. And it is claimed that this is true not only of the very ingenious and adequate apparatus but also of the very flexible and adaptable processes by which the child is led to discipline himself and to carry on his own moral and social education.’

[PIERRE BOVET—*Vingt ans de Vie*,  
pp. 60, 61, 62.]



*Working at Numbers*



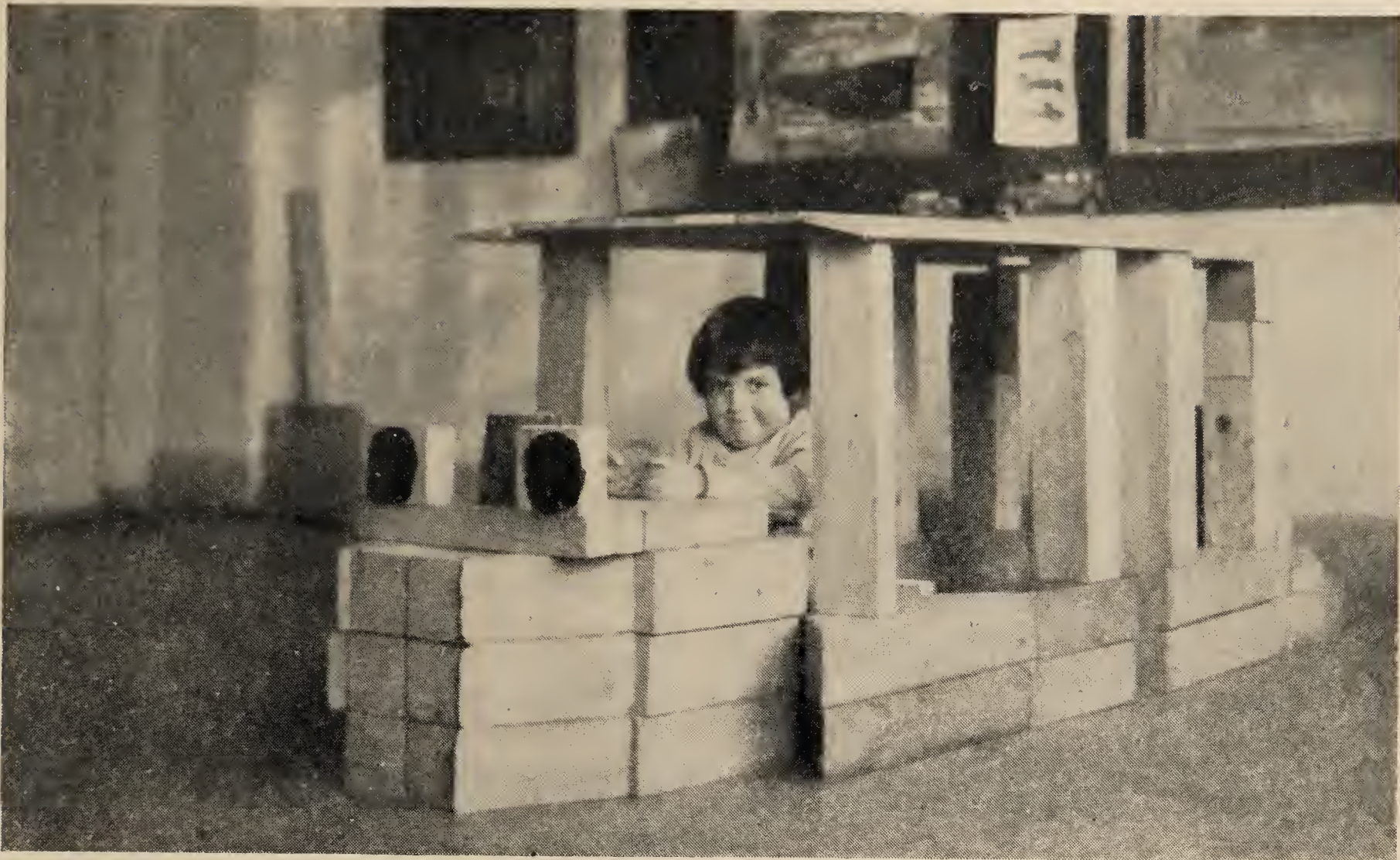


*Playing at 'Cat and Mouse'*



*The Library*





*'My' Motor Car*



*Weaving Cushion Covers and Other Things*



# The Purpose of Child Study

WILLIAM MOODIE

SOCIETY was never less stable than at the present moment. In almost every direction rapid developments are taking place, and the child of to-day finds himself in an environment very different from that in which his parents were brought up. This is only one of the reasons why some study may well be given to children and why it is necessary for us to devote thought to their development.

## Understanding Replaces Instinct

In olden days, parental instinct was sufficient to guide the child through such difficulties as beset him in his earlier years, but nowadays instinct does not carry us very far in any direction. In fact, the thoroughly socialized individual must, if he is to fit into society, keep his instinctual drives always well under control. So the parental instinct, which was suited to primitive conditions, is inadequate to deal with those which prevail to-day.

We have become increasingly aware of this inadequacy during the last thirty years, partly because research and study have shown how very widespread is mental instability of a minor character, and to how great an extent this mental instability has resulted from the policy of repressive discipline which was followed in the upbringing of the last generation.

Parents are in many instances the first to recognize this, and consequently to express a desire that the children whom they bring into the world may have the best possible chance of avoiding such difficulties in their lives. Just as study has shown us the widespread nature and the origin of these nervous disturbances, so it has thrown a great deal of light upon their cure.

## Giving the Child a Chance

But probably the most important line of advance of modern psychology has been in throwing light upon the everyday behaviour of normal individuals in society, and also upon the behaviour of the various groups of which society consists. The application, then, of this bulk of knowledge has given us the power not

only to appreciate how children may be prevented from developing actual behaviour or character difficulties, but also how a child may be given the very greatest possible chance of evolving into the happiest and most productive individual possible. This is of benefit not only to himself but also to the state and to future generations, and it behoves us to apply this knowledge so far as we possibly can, each in his own particular sphere.

It must not be forgotten that faulty conditions do not necessarily produce obvious abnormalities of temperament or behaviour. Yet numbers of us, though appearing normal, though apparently happy, are suffering from minor hidden disabilities of which we ourselves are frequently unconscious, which prevent us from enjoying life to the full or from being as efficient as we might otherwise have been.

## The Whole Child

One of the lines along which study has shown advancement is in demonstrating that, if we wish to understand anything about the child, we must know *all* about him. We must know not only what his physical development and health are, how to utilize that health, whether he develops his muscular powers and his bodily activities through play and other forms of exercise, but we must know about his inborn capacities, we must know just how far he is equipped with these fundamental endowments of intelligence which will allow him to appreciate not only his surroundings but also his relation to them. We must realize how far he is capable of benefiting from such educational facilities as may be provided for him. We must know how far he can adapt himself to the competition he will meet with when he enters adult life.

## Temperament and Experience

Children differ also in temperament, but it would seem that the temperament of the child is built up much more from his experiences, and especially his early ones, than from anything in the nature of inborn character traits.



These exist to some extent. Just as individuals differ recognizably one from the other in stature and feature, so do they differ in temperamental detail. But again, just as there is only an occasional individual who differs very markedly from others in size or configuration, so there is only an occasional child who obviously differs in temperament from the average of his fellows. This is borne out by observation of large numbers of children, and it is a hopeful deduction, because it relieves us of the fatalistic feeling that a child could be born a criminal or born with abnormal proclivities.

Study has shown further that the relation between cause and effect in children's behaviour is frequently remote, and that an unfortunate habit of conduct may be the result of something which at first sight appears to bear no relation to it whatever. It may be said, however, that further research will reveal, in the vast majority of cases, a definite, clear and logical connection between behaviour and its causes. The majority of children who cause anxiety are intrinsically normal but are being disturbed by circumstances beyond their control.

#### **Behaviour Problems and the School**

Children may present behaviour problems through no fault whatever of the parent. Many of these difficulties arise at school. The child, on his first entry into school, or his removal from one school to another, frequently finds considerable difficulty in adjusting himself to the new situation. He may, as a result, display all manner of peculiar behaviour distortions in the home.

Parents must realize that behaviour problems are often the result of circumstances outside their control. They should not sit down under a feeling of ineffectiveness, but should set out to alter these circumstances so that the balance may be adjusted and the difficulty dispelled. This in practice is found to be possible in many cases, and so our approach nowadays to behaviour difficulties is not one of discouragement

or despair but of optimism. Such optimism is justified by knowledge founded upon long observation and supported by practical results.

#### **Knowledge Ousts Anxiety**

It is quite natural for parents to be disturbed when their children develop in an undesirable way, when they display characteristics either of conduct or of thought which appear abnormal. The parent is responsible for the child, and that feeling of responsibility becomes constructive. The responsible parent will demand: What shall I do? Where can I get advice? Where can I find knowledge to guide me?

He begins to realize that the bringing up of the child is no simple matter of haphazard trial and error. He realizes that a mistake in handling the child may have far-reaching consequences. But he also realizes that he can learn to deal, with increasing wisdom, with any situation that may arise, and that, should a mistake occur, should an undesirable situation develop, he will know how to correct it. The most important function of parent guidance is to dispel parental anxiety, which often mars the efforts of the most conscientious parents. In dispelling this anxiety, parent education aims also at making clear that difficulties arise as transient incidents in the lives of the most normal children in the most normal homes.

#### **Nature Loves the Norm**

The tendency of all development, physical or mental, is toward the normal. We don't become distressed because the child spills his first few spoonfuls of liquid food, or because his first steps are tottering, for we know that with practice the hand will become firm and the step secure.

So we know that many of the minor lapses from rigid behaviour are merely these early inco-ordinations, and that even unassisted they will pass. They will pass quicker, however, if the parent is there to help and not to chide. The helping hand and the guiding word at the appropriate moment may avert a stumble which, though not serious, is better avoided.



# Trends in Individual Work—II

A. J. LYNCH

LAST month I pointed out that freedom and opportunity for activity are essential elements in any attempt to implement individual work. When one speaks of freedom, it is not merely an opportunity of movement from place to place that is meant, though that may be extraordinarily useful if the movement leads to a greater self-control, but what one has in mind is a freedom of the spirit, without which there can be no creativeness. This concept is important for, in the early days, when it was suggested that children in school might be given greater freedom, it was regarded as a dangerous innovation which might lead to pandemonium. I remember, when I began my own experiment, visitors were sometimes surprised to find that in a school in which freedom ran there could also be order.

Similarly, activity was suspect lest it might be subversive of discipline. The idea was that 'work' must be a stern and even unpleasant thing, and that activity, which might be pleasant, and might imply that the very best kind of work was being done, must somehow be suppressed or minimized.

## Individuality—the Goal of Every Life

But nowadays the words 'individual' and 'work' are coming to be better understood, and the phrase 'individual work' is coming to be regarded as standing for a great deal more than its obvious superficial meaning. The great thing about a child, as indeed about us all, is individuality. Individuality, says Sir Percy Nunn, is the natural goal of *every* life, and the standard by which its relative success or failure may be judged. The true business of education, therefore, is to supply the conditions under which children may best be stimulated and guided to the fulfilment each of his own individuality. No 'work' given to a child which does not allow his individuality to develop can rightly be regarded as individual. Individual work has never meant giving a child something to do to keep him quiet, or to give the teacher time to do something else. The teacher's function now is rather to see that help is at hand in the

form of kindly encouragement, guidance and instruction, leaving his pupils, at the same time, to make the best use they can of it, each in his own way. The teacher will, as far as possible, deal with every child as a unit and not merely as an item in a group. To anyone desirous of a clearer understanding of the full meaning of individual work I would recommend a reading of the Introduction by Sir Percy Nunn to Miss Mackinder's little book on *Individual Work in Infant Schools*.

## Individual Work Demands Much of Teachers

When individual work was first being discussed there was an easy notion current that the pupil would do more and more, and the teacher less and less. During one of my several visits to Amsterdam to lecture on Individual work and the Dalton Plan I was told a story by the Principal of a Training College. He said an inspector visited a room in which the class as a whole seemed busy. The class teacher was sitting in one chair with his feet on another and was reading a newspaper. 'What is this?' inquired the inspector. Turning his head wearily towards the visitor, the teacher replied: 'This is the Dalton Plan'. No mistake could be greater than to suppose that the newer methods of instructing and managing children are easier than the older ones, or make less demands upon a teacher in the way of character and qualifications. The demands are very much greater. 'They certainly offer the teacher a happier life', says Sir Percy, in the pages referred to above, 'for they presuppose a much more human and natural relation between himself and his pupils. On the other hand, ability to use them successfully is a more searching test of a teacher's moral and intellectual resources, and requires the mastery of a more difficult technique.'

I believe it is true to say that individual work methods have reached a high standard of excellence in the infants' schools of this country. Miss Mackinder's book is an interesting confirmation of this. But these methods do not appear to be carried over, in any great measure, into the junior and senior schools. I believe



it is true also to say that some form of individual work has been carried out in most of the rural schools in the land. It is often forgotten that roughly one half of the schools in this country are rural schools with one hundred or fewer pupils on their books. Assuming that one third of the number are infants, it can be seen that the remainder, ranging from 7 to 14 years, must obviously be subject to some kind of individual work, for class grouping becomes difficult. The drawback here, however, is that the individual work set is often of the old type, and is not conceived in the new spirit. Still, it is there, and shows that the thing can be done.

#### **Classification : Age v. Ability**

May I here interpolate a word on classification in schools of normal size. Should classification be based on ability or on age? In my work, I always used age as the basis. I know that when ability is used as the basis one obtains a more tidy and, perhaps, manageable group. But I was always troubled in my mind, when I asked

myself the question: Ability in what? My readers will perhaps agree with me when I say that usually it would be ability in arithmetic and English with the emphasis on the former. Rarely was ability in art or craft considered. But my greatest distress always came when under the 'ability' method of classifying I found older boys mingled with younger boys. I heard, the other day, of a school—it must be a rare example—where several boys of 13 were classified with boys of 8. I am sure it is bad for both, not only on intellectual but also on moral grounds. No, I should classify on age. Abilities in different subjects might vary in the groups; there might also be wide differences of intelligence, but each group would probably fall into three main divisions—the normal, comprising say, fifty per cent of the pupils, and the sub-normal and super-normal each with twenty-five per cent.

#### **More Help for the Slower Child**

This fact seems to me to define pretty clearly to the teacher what his job is. Classification on



*History Block at West Green School*



an age basis always demands a greater amount of individual work, and the divisions into which the age-group will fall will mark out the nature of the work to be done. Generally speaking, the super-normal children will need less supervision; the normal may need more; and the sub-normal may need a great deal. I always found the last division the most interesting of all.

From what has just been said about ability, it follows that the personnel of the divisions will vary with different subjects. I am quite certain it would be entirely different for arithmetic and English, and for art and history. I daresay, too, it would be different for handwork. One may, perhaps, mildly protest here against the idea that handwork, or practical work of any kind, be reserved for sub-normal children. It should be a medium of expression for all children. It is true that it might be a more suitable means of approach with sub-normal children, but that is no reason for depriving others of its full value. Moreover I always feel that handwork should arise out of the subject under discussion rather than be treated as a thing apart. But this is taking me outside my subject.

### The Making of Assignments

How then under these conditions can children be supplied with work to do on their own? In my own experiment, I supplied it mainly in the form of assignments. The making of an assignment is quite an easy thing to understand. The year's work, in any particular subject that is capable of being treated individually, is divided into as many more or less equal parts as there are months in the school year. These portions may be subdivided again into four so as to correspond with the weeks. These portions are written up in an interesting way and become monthly (or weekly) assignments. It may not be possible to distribute the same assignments to all three divisions in the age-group. In that case they will be drawn up to meet the needs of each division. Sometimes it is a valuable exercise for children to draw up

assignments for themselves, though it is not an easy task. It is one, however, which, if properly carried out, creates interest and even enthusiasm. But there are dangers. Assignments cannot be effective if they merely take the form of doling out rigid tasks to be done to time; neither are they valuable if they become permanent and are never changed. They are only vital when, in the light of experience, they are changed to suit individual needs. They should, in any case, reflect a real relation between the teacher and his pupils.

### Class-room Arrangement

Such assignments may be used for single subjects with a part or with the whole of the class at a particular time. Frequently, however, experimenters arrange their rooms in such a manner as to allow different subjects to be taken at the same time. They do this by rearranging the school furniture, or, better still, by providing tables, so as to form subject blocks. Thus, there may be an English block, a history block, and so on. Children are able to occupy the block and work at the subject they are interested in at the moment, and, having finished their task, may pass on to another block. There are, in fact, all sorts of ways in which the principle may be applied within the four walls of a class-room. This is as it should be, for there is no royal road along which every child must pass. One of the great advantages of working in this way in a class-room is that it need not, of necessity, involve the whole school. Sometimes one hears of young teachers who suffer disappointment, and sometimes distress, because they fail to find in the schools to which they go any of the progressive methods about which they have heard so much during their training courses. Here, however, is a means by which they can try out their own methods in their own room.

How the method can be applied to the school as a whole, or to the greater part of it, I propose to show in the next article, in which I shall describe in detail my own experiment which was started twelve years ago.



# Notes on the Work of the Commissions of the New Education Fellowship

THE Commissions of the Fellowship have sprung up since Locarno in 1927. At that Conference the need for more definite action, for purposeful investigation into the difficulties confronting the New Education, was felt. As the Commissions develop, we hope that they will become both the focus and starting point of much of the work of future Conferences.

**The Psychology Commission** (Chairman, Dr. William Moodie, Medical Director of the London Child Guidance Clinic) met to discuss three main problems: How the psychologist can help the teacher in his dealings with the difficult child; how the study of the difficult child can contribute to the theory and practice of education; and how to deal with moral faults in the school.

The meetings resulted in an outline of future work: (1) the publication of an international bulletin of Bibliography on the subject of Psychology in Education and Child Psychology; (2) the study of psychology in teachers' training colleges; (3) the preparation of a book on child psychology in non-technical language which would be of practical use to parents and teachers. The book will be prepared by an editorial board, and will contain contributions from leading child psychologists and from specialists in parent-teacher problems. The Commission will endeavour to keep it up-to-date by means of frequent new editions, and it is hoped it will be translated into French, German and Hindi or Urdu.

In spite of divergences of points of view, increased by confusion in the use of technical terms, the meetings of this Commission showed promise of co-operation and agreement upon fundamentals.

**The Examinations Commission**, founded at Locarno, met at Elsinore under the chairmanship of Dr. Carson Ryan, Director of the Department of Indian Education, U.S.A., and has, since then, collected much material on the incidence of examinations in various countries. A harder task has been the assessment of the exact influence of examinations upon curriculum and method. All investigation, however, tends to confirm the view expressed in the Elsinore statement, that 'existing examination systems seriously interfere with educational progress in many countries'.

The chief task of this Commission is to discuss *how far the curricula that are being evolved under the influence of the New Education will be examinable, and under what conditions they should be examined*. In this connection it has sought the help of the Curriculum Commission, to ascertain how far the reform of examinations can further their work of making the study of contemporary civilization the core of the new curriculum, and of the Teacher Training Commission, to enlist their help in securing broader courses for teachers, and reformed examinations in the Training Colleges.

Professor Piéron made a valuable contribution by distinguishing clearly between tests of aptitude and tests of attainment, making an estimate of their respective importance. He suggested that tests of the latter type should not bear upon memorized facts, but on the achievement of a method of work, and a capacity to use new material. In this he was strongly supported by evidence from Sweden and elsewhere. It is hoped that tests along these lines will be used tentatively in the coming three years, and that definite proposals upon examination reform may be based upon the results of these.

Suggestions on the use of standardized diagnostic tests come from America. In this country there is a movement away from the encyclopædic examination, and all the big Colleges but four have agreed to make a five-years' experiment by taking selected pupils from certain schools on school record only.

It is interesting to note that in England the Association of University Teachers adopted in 1931 the principle laid down by the Commission at Elsinore: 'that the imposition of a University Matriculation Examination upon pupils not proceeding to the institution concerned is to be deprecated'.

The Commission recognized the calamitous results produced by the imposition of our narrow academic system on non-European nations. (This point was stressed at the British Commonwealth Education Conference, held by the Fellowship in London, 1931.)

On the basis of what has been done, there is scope for an immense amount of investigation before the next Conference.

**The Teacher Training Commission** was set up at Elsinore in 1929, under the chairmanship of Dr. Thomas Alexander, of Teachers' College, Columbia University. The following year, papers on an ideal programme of training written by Dr. William Boyd and Dr. Harold Rugg were circulated among some sixty members of the Commission. Their comments formed the basis of the Commissions' discussions at Nice. Thanks to the efforts of the Secretary, Dr. Ruth McMurry, the meetings were active and purposeful. In the absence of Dr. Alexander, they were ably chaired by Dr. Goodwin Watson of Teachers' College.

There was general agreement on the primary importance of teacher training for the New Education. The European practice of having separate types of training for elementary and secondary school teachers was strongly criticized. One suggested remedy was that *all* teachers should have both secondary and university education. It was generally felt, however, that this would only lead to further academization, and that the whole aim and content of teacher training needs overhauling. Teachers of the New Education must themselves be close to life. They must be encouraged, even forced, to live more fully. An understanding of contemporary society,



of the background and of the minds of the children they educate is essential to them.

During the interval between Nice and the next World Conference, the organizers of the Commission hope to receive many proposals, either for whole programmes of teacher training or for certain aspects thereof, as well as reports on actual work.

**The Curriculum Commission** came into being after Elsinore, largely as a result of the Course given there by Dr. Harold Rugg. Since a child-centred school aims at preparing children to live in a contemporary society they understand, it was decided that the Commission should first investigate the teaching of 'Social Studies'. History, geography, civics, religion and art can no longer be taught as separate 'subjects' if they are to fuse in the minds of the future citizens of the world.

The discussions at Nice centred around what would promote an understanding of their inter-relationship. Members reported on work done in their countries, and came to the conclusion that all were aiming at much the same thing. It was proposed that members should send in to the Chairman short lists of significant units of work that could be taught even in situations still fairly cramped by a rigid curriculum. The units most frequently recurring were to be incorporated in a final list. Members would attempt to have these tried out through teaching in different types of schools. There was not time to work out this proposal in detail at Nice, but members decided to exchange accounts of their work. The material so exchanged will enable us to evaluate the differences in various countries that give a different form to any common material, according to the national surroundings in which it is used.

All those who are prepared to contribute to the Commission's work should communicate either directly with Dr. Rugg or with the Commission Secretary.

**The Commission on International Understanding** reported at Nice on work done during the past three years, and formulated a programme of future action. It was decided that World Fellows and others should embark on inquiries in their own countries, in such educational institutions as were available to them. They should first communicate their intentions to the Chairman, Dr. G. H. Green (University College of Wales, Aberystwyth), who will act as liaison officer, keeping workers in touch with central organizations and with each other. The report which should be the outcome of these investigations will form a basis for discussion at the next World Conference. The work undertaken will be psychological in character, attempting to discover the causes that create and mar international understanding.

A group interested in the problems of **Bilingualism** met at Nice for discussion and heard reports on studies made in different countries on the subject.

At the British Commonwealth Conference an important section on Bilingualism had functioned, and in consequence it was decided to ask Miss Saer to prepare a similar section at Nice. A first international conference on Bilingualism had taken place in 1928 at Luxemburg, organized by Professor Pierre Bovet, of Geneva. During the Nice meetings the possibilities of further study in that field became so clear that a small committee organized itself into a Permanent Commission.

It is hoped to investigate: (1) tests for the degree of Bilingualism, and (2) the effects of Bilingualism on the growth of intelligence, on the emotions and on facility of speech. Those interested should communicate with Professor Bovet, Institute Rousseau, Geneva, the Chairman of the Commission, and Miss Saer (48 Aberdeen Park, London, N.5).

**The Commission on Mental Tests** was unable to meet at Nice, owing to the unavoidable absence of its Chairman, Dr. Virgil Dixon (Berkley College, California). The group will, however, proceed with its work.

**The Rôle of Education in Social Welfare Work.** This Commission, which was first mooted at Elsinore, is now being set up under the Chairmanship of Dr. Elizabeth Rotten (Dresden-Hellerau). It will concern itself with the problem of making social welfare institutions into educational agencies. It is becoming more and more necessary to introduce educational principles into the law courts and prisons; unemployment has presented a new social problem which can only be solved by a new outlook on adult education as one of continual retraining for other branches of work and of education for leisure. This study is more advanced in Germany and America than in England.

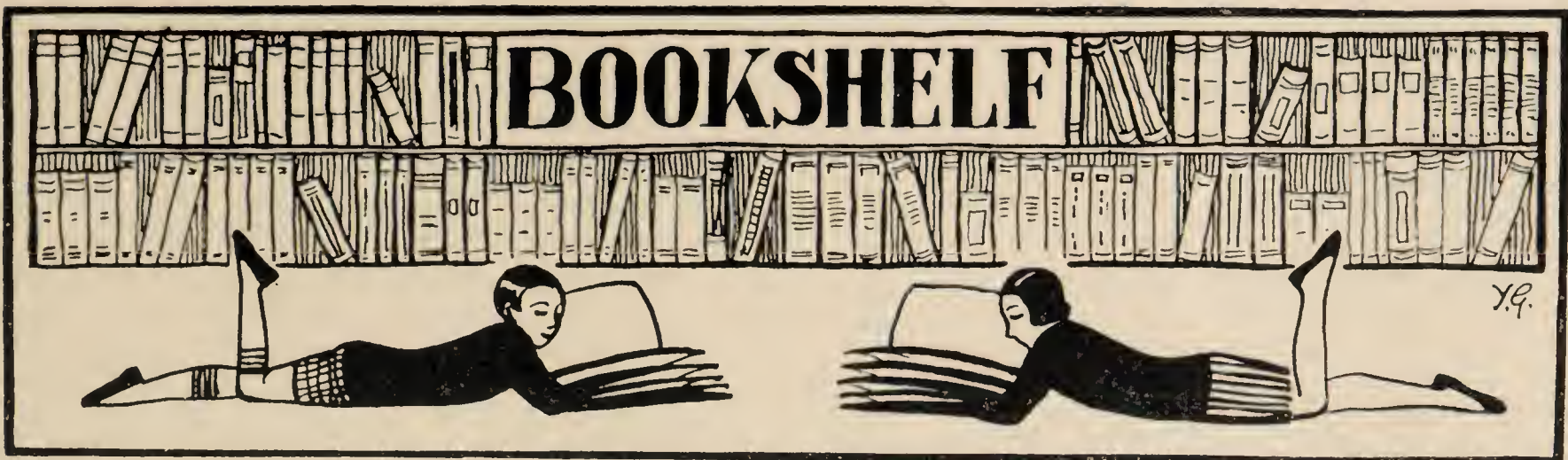
Plans are being made for the work of this Commission in preparation for the next World Conference.

*C. H. Oppenheim, Commissions' Secretary*

*To celebrate the sixtieth birthday of the late Dr. Decroly and the twenty-fifth anniversary of the foundation of his well-known school, 'L'Ermitage', a Jubilee Book is being published. The book will comprise accounts of the life and work of Dr. Decroly, the history of the creation of 'L'Ermitage', a complete bibliography of his works and original contributions from over forty well-known psychologists and educationists from all parts of the world.*

*The book may be obtained by private subscription only. For further particulars apply to Mlle. Hamaide, 45 Drève des Gendarmes, Uccle-Bruxelles, Belgium.*





**New Babes for Old: A Book for Parents.** By Winifred de Kok, M.R.C.S., M.R.C.P. (Gollancz. 5s.)

I like this book. The author is a physician with a training in psycho-analysis, a woman with a woman's sympathetic insight, and a mother who lives with her children. No university can give a post-graduate course in psychology which is equal in value to that which is obtained when a trained mind with a knowledge of present-day psychological theory is patiently applied to the observation of the daily activities of little children. In her observation of her own children upon which this book is founded, Dr. de Kok has known what to look for, but her knowledge has prejudiced neither her observation nor her interpretation. As a result we have a book which will be read with keen interest by hardened students of child psychology as well as by the parents for whom it is intended.

Nineteen short chapters deal with the chief problems that arise in the first few years of life. Representative titles are Birth, Weaning, Sex Education, Tantrums, Infantile Habits, Play, and Reasonable Children. Julia and Christopher have provided the research material which is often very charming. With regard to sex education, Dr. de Kok fully agrees with the modern doctrine that questions having any bearing on sex should be answered directly in the same brief matter of fact way as any other questions. I entirely concur with her view that 'as soon as a child is intelligent enough to begin wondering about the world around him, just so soon is he likely to develop an interest in sex'. Very helpful is it that in the chapter on sex education the author has given not only the children's spontaneous questions and activities, but has confessed freely when her own first but controlled reaction was a feeling of disgust or horror.

Dr. de Kok is fully awake to the individuality of babies and to the danger of a too rigid worship of routines. Many mothers will be glad to have an authoritative confirmation of what experience has taught them: that some babies are the better of a little humouring, even in such matters as feeding and sleeping.

The years between two and four are, in Dr. de Kok's opinion, the most critical years of childhood.

Imagination is beginning to develop, and with it all kinds of fears and fancies arise. The child's increased powers of getting about tend to lessen his feeling of security. The arrival of a new baby may definitely withdraw from him some of his mother's attention. Unwillingness to be alone or to be in the dark may now arise in a child well accustomed to these experiences. The way to restore confidence in the child is not to force him along the path of independence, but to endeavour to strengthen his feeling of security. When that is done, he will spontaneously resume the brave outgoing attitude to life which characterizes the child who feels he has his own niche, from which no one can displace him.

Many parents in these days, when men like J. B. Watson and Arnold Gesell are studying infants in laboratories and basing on scientific observation advice as to their treatment, must have wondered how far they ought to give way to their natural impulses in the rearing of their children. Some of our adult impulses, as has been suggested above, should certainly be restrained. But perhaps Professor Watson in his reaction against the strain put on many children by the love needs of their parents, may, in his valuable little book on the psychological care of infant and child, tend to inculcate in the conscientious mother an attitude which may leave unsatisfied the love-hunger of her offspring. Dr. de Kok speaks wise words on this subject. Every child should be made sure of his mother's love. But this is *not* done by a display of emotion. This is always out of place with children. 'The kind of love a child needs is not that expressed by embraces and kisses, but by a readiness to help him in his daily difficulties; a love which takes an intelligent interest in the child's development, and provides him with scope for educational play.'

The chapter dealing with infantile habits will also bring comfort to many mothers. Julia and Christopher have obligingly indulged at various times in many of the so-called bad habits, so that their mother's advice rests on direct experience which she shares with us, so that we can form our own opinions. Her general finding is in accord with modern psychological principles, and is that bad habits, if not emphasized by the disapproval and interference of adults, will spontaneously be abandoned as the infant's interests increase and multiply.



We feel sure that the thoughtful study of this book will promote the happiness and well-being of children, and we wish for it a wide circulation among mothers.

*Margaret Drummond*

**The Moral Judgment of the Child.** *Jean Piaget.*  
(Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co. Ltd.  
12s. 6d.). Translated by Marjorie Gabain.

Professor Piaget follows up, in this work, the method he has already used with outstanding success in 'Judgment and Reasoning in the Child', 'The Child's Conception of the World', and 'The Child's Conception of Causality'. He has questioned numbers of children and conversed with them. 'The only safeguard', he says, 'lies in the collaboration of other investigators'. His findings in the fields of children's logic and children's ideas of causality have been generally confirmed by other workers in sufficient measure to encourage him in the use of the method he has devised.

The earlier part of the book deals with the outlook of children upon the rules for the games which they play. The games selected by Professor Piaget are those which are played with marbles. When and in what ways are the rules of the game considered to be obligatory and binding? What ideas does the child form of these rules? Does he feel free to change them if he wishes? The interrogations are extraordinarily interesting and illuminating: reading them in full convinces one of our lack of knowledge of the child's moral outlook.

The second part of the book deals with the attitudes of children towards the rules of conduct laid down by adults. The discussion of the child's outlook upon alterations of truth in accordance with his desires, though he knows it to be 'naughty' to lie, is very revealing. 'Moreover', says the author, 'as we saw in the game of marbles, a rule may be felt as sacred and obligatory without, for that matter, being properly applied.'

The third and theoretical part of the book is one which is of the greatest importance to everyone who has thought about the problems of freedom and discipline in the school. Piaget speaks of children, 'who, while they uphold the supremacy of obedience, distinguish between what is just and what is imposed by authority', and of others 'who set justice above submission'. He finds, from the study of the game, 'that there exist two types of respect, and consequently two moralities—a morality of constraint or of heteronomy, and a morality of co-operation or of autonomy'. In the conversations we see these moralities in being, expressed in the children's own words. At the end of his preface the author expresses the hope that his book 'may supply a scaffolding which those living with children and observing the spontaneous reactions can use in erecting the actual edifice'. There can be no doubt that he has fulfilled his hope: the scaffolding is there; it remains only for teachers to use it.

*George H. Green*

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**Set the Children Free.** *Fritz Wittels. Translated by Eden and Cedar Paul. (Allen & Unwin, 10s.)*

Although this book had reached its fourth German edition in 1927, it makes its first appearance in English this year. It will be appreciated by all those who are anxious to make use of the findings of Freud in the upbringing of children. In the early chapters the writer has many wise things to say about the child's ego, the dawning of doubt, lying, sex education and other subjects constantly under discussion in these days. The relationship between parent and child is dealt with from many different angles and questions relating to step-children, illegitimate children and orphans are frankly faced. To many parents, however, the book may strike a note of despair, for here we find many examples of the far-reaching effects on children of apparently small home incidents. Nevertheless, for those who are anxious to avoid the many attitudes and happenings which are likely to cause neurosis in their children, this book will provide ample food for thought.

All through, but especially in the last chapter, educationalists come in for their share of condemnation. In the end most readers will be left with the firm conviction that children should be set free from the tyranny of adults, but the question is—how much nearer will they be to achieving freedom for the children under their care? Just how such a happy state of things can be achieved is not too clear.

Perhaps, at this stage, all that an author on this subject can do is to set his readers furiously to think.

*E. M. Nevill*

### **The Reorganization of Education in China.**

*By the League of Nations' Commission of Educational Experts:—C. H. Becker, M. Falski, P. Langevin, and R. H. Tawney. Published by the League of Nations' Institute of International Co-operation. (Allen & Unwin, 5s.)*

Upon reading this Report, one cannot help admiring and thanking the Commissioners for their insight in diagnosing most of China's educational ills, their courage in proclaiming them to the world, and their ability in suggesting concrete remedies. May we hope that China's administrators and educators, who have also been considering these problems, will study the Report carefully, and adopt or modify the recommendations, but act on them quickly and wholeheartedly.

The Report does not merely find fault, but appreciates fully what has already been achieved in spite of innumerable difficulties, and expresses a faith in China's ability to work out her own salvation. But it is only our best friends who will tell us frankly our shortcomings and at the same time show us how to overcome them.

There is only space to touch on a few of the

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criticisms. China's 'Educational Godfather', America, must not feel hurt at the violent attack against Americanization. Columbia University's greatest teachers, Dr. Monroe and others, have repeatedly warned China against the same dangers. The line of least resistance is often taken, being the easiest and quickest, but in time China hopes to evolve an education more appropriately Chinese. The recommendation is well given that students should do their undergraduate studies in China, and that mature and experienced educators should have the opportunity of travelling and studying abroad.

The criticisms of the teachers and their teaching are not entirely ungrounded, and we hope that China will soon have a body of teachers trained in subject matter and theory, with the right attitudes and ideals towards their profession.

The problem of student discipline deserves urgent attention, but it demands the right methods,

as indiscipline is generally a sign of misdirected ideals and energy. With careful guidance this energy could be converted into one of the greatest forces for good.

In conclusion, one cannot help recording a doubt on one point. It seems that occasionally the suggestions were given from the administrative rather than from the pedagogical point of view. Too much systematization might kill local and individual initiative, while the concentration of too much power in the hands of one or more government officials might increase the evils of political influence. Likewise one would hesitate to expect the primary school teacher to try to teach fifty or sixty children, because she probably could not and should not, and because once having introduced such a scheme, it might be difficult to eradicate it, especially if it were once advocated by international educational experts

*T. I. Ho*

## International Notes

### FELLOWSHIP NEWS

On November 3rd, 4th and 5th the New Education Fellowship, the Home and School Council, the Nursery School Association of Great Britain and the New Era in Home and School are giving a joint House Warming at 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1. Among the distinguished guests who hope to be present on one of these occasions are: Miss Ishbel Macdonald, the Rt. Hon. the Earl of Lytton, the Rt. Hon. Lord Eustace Percy, Professor Sir Percy Nunn, Dr. Cyril Norwood, Lord and Lady Allen of Hurtwood, Mr. G. H. Gater, C.M.G., Dr. J. C. Maxwell Garnett, Dr. H. Crichton-Miller, Sir W. Clarke Hall, K.C.B., Sir Philip Hartog, Mrs. Winteringham, and representatives of each of the major associations of teachers.

### Northern Ireland Section

Sir Richard Livingstone, President of the Northern Ireland Section of the N.E.F., addressed a meeting on October 4th, organized by the Fellowship, on 'The Future of Education in Northern Ireland'.

Sir Richard said that before speculating about the future of education one must consider its present. How would posterity criticize our present educational system? They might find in it errors as gross as those which deformed the education of fifty years ago. 'We have set up an educational system' he declared, 'because under our democratic constitution the masses elect the government and in doing so have to pronounce on colossal issues in which the fortunes of millions of human beings are involved.' Sixty-three millions per annum are spent on elementary education in England and Wales alone. Sir Richard said that vast amounts of this money were wasted because the educational system ignores three fundamental principles: (1) that a child could no more complete its education at 14, 15 or 16 years of age than it could complete its growth at that age. Therefore an educa-

tion which is not carried past the age of 17 was an enterprise relinquished before its real fruits were garnered; (2) that education should give an explanation of the matured world and of human life in it; (3) that many pupils have little or no capacity for languages, literature, history or science, at least as at present taught. Their minds are concrete rather than abstract and they cannot therefore profit by ordinary academic secondary school training.

### Scottish Section

The Annual Meeting of the Scottish Section was held on October 8th, at Glasgow. There was a crowded attendance and Miss Margaret Drummond, in the Chair, nominated Mr. Bennett Millar, in the name of the Council, as the next President. He was unanimously elected.

The Chairman then announced the resignation of the General Secretary, on account of her impending removal to the south of England. Miss C. R. Donald, St. Andrews, was unanimously elected to take Miss Cruttwell's place.

Interesting addresses followed from Dr. Boyd and Miss Drummond.

Miss Drummond was very heartily thanked for all she had done for the Fellowship during her year of office, on the call of Captain St. John.

### NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION OF GREAT BRITAIN, 29, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

All educationists, whatever of life's stages be their main concern, must view with disquiet the steady pressure of reaction that we are witnessing—the demand for economies in the teaching services. Some Local Education Authorities are convinced of the supreme importance of their work; but there are others which are only too ready to grasp an



opportunity for appeasing their rate-payers by reducing their school expenditure; and to these the pressure of the Board of Education comes as an excuse for economizing in what may be quite uneconomical ways.

Since the end of 1931, we have accepted the unwelcome fact that for the next few years there is little hope of any extension of Open-Air Nursery Schools under Local Education Authorities; and, since there will be no grants from the Board, there are also very slender chances of development in Nursery Schools under Voluntary Committees. But now we are in danger not only of a halt, but even of a retreat. Bradford, pioneer city in Child Welfare, has seen fit to reduce expenses by cutting down children's milk supply, and by virtually closing its beautiful Lilycroft Nursery School, whose work is now absorbed in the adjacent Infant School, while its superintendent, one of our best and most influential, becomes an assistant teacher.

Many serious results must follow such a policy. In the first place a whole generation of little children is being sacrificed; for no subsequent care can compensate for neglect during these first years of life. Physique, intelligence, character, adjustment to their world, will inevitably suffer. In the second place, there will certainly be a tendency to look to Nursery Classes and Infant Classes as substitutes for the full-day Nursery Schools. Valuable as these may be and often are, they can only be a second-best; but they may (if great vigilance is not exerted) come to be regarded in England as sufficient provision for the pre-school child. Moreover the reaction on the young Nursery School teacher must be considered. There are hundreds of girls eminently fitted for this work by nature, but they are not going to undergo the expense of the full Nursery School training if there is no reasonable assurance of posts when they are qualified.

Our hopes at the moment lie in voluntary efforts, and it is encouraging to know that the public support of the Nursery School idea is growing in inverse ratio to the public money available. Local propaganda and local efforts to get Nursery Schools are reported from many places. At Lincoln the unemployed men are equipping a Nursery School; Louth is about to open one; Brighton has its schemes ready, and is organizing a great movement to raise the needed money. If a thing be right and good, no human power can check it.

*Effie Ryle*

## OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST

### Switzerland

The Institut J.-J. Rousseau (Institute of Educational Sciences of the University of Geneva) has just been celebrating its twentieth anniversary. It was founded in 1912, by M. Edouard Claparède and M. Pierre Bovet, who became its Director.

The birthday celebrations included speeches by M. Claparède, M. Bovet, M. Jean Piaget, M. Dottrens, and the Rector of the University, and the publication of M. Bovet's book, *Vingt ans de Vie*.

An interesting inquiry has been circulated among the 900 old pupils to determine what, of all that they received during their passage through the Institute, has been of most use to them in their professional lives. Their answers include, beside every aspect of technical training from nursery school to post-graduate work, 'the friendliness of the teachers, the collaboration between them and the pupils, the freedom in the work, the spirit of scientific and personal research, the interesting cosmopolitan background, the respect for the personalities of the pupils and the critical sense that is developed in them'.

### Great Britain

The League of Nations Union has just brought out an excellent list of books on the League of Nations for children and teachers. It is also urging Local Education Authorities 'to set aside one day in each year in all schools for the purpose of propagating the ideals of peace, this day to be known as "Peace Day Celebrations", and it is strongly recommended that the day to be so set apart be Armistice Day'.

Last year 94 Local Education Authorities distributed to their schools for use at such celebrations an Armistice Day Message written by General Smuts. This year a message has been secured from the Headmaster of Rugby, and the Union invites the co-operation of the Local Authorities in distributing copies as widely as possible.

For further particulars of both publications, apply to the Secretary, League of Nations Union, 15, Grosvenor Crescent, London, S.W.1.

Six new Elementary Schools were recently formally opened at Barking, Essex, by Sir Henry Hadow. They comprise Infants', Junior and Senior Departments, and are beautifully designed. The classrooms are so arranged as to have full access to sunshine and air, and each has its own colour-scheme. Each block of buildings abounds on five acres of land. The equipment throughout is ample and modern, but not elaborate or expensive. The whole group of schools is a decided addition to the amenities of this well-planned London suburb. So great is the pressure of the population in this area that three more schools already planned will be proceeded with immediately. The Director and Assistant Director of Education for Barking are J. Compton, M.A., and Leslie Hutchinson.

The British Social Hygiene Council has arranged a course of four lectures on 'Marriage and its Problems', to be held at the May Fair Hotel, Berkeley Street, at 11.15 a.m. on Tuesdays. The first lecture on 8th November, is by Professor F. A. E. Crew, M.D., D.Sc., Ph.D., on 'The Evolutionary Problems'; the second on 15th November, by Lady Barrett, C.H., C.B.E., M.D., M.S., on 'The Physical Problems'; the third, 22nd November, Dr. J. A. Hadfield, on 'The Psychological Problems'; and the fourth, 29th November, Mrs. C. Neville Rolfe, O.B.E., on 'The Social Problems'.



# PARENTS AND CHILDREN

SUPPLEMENT TO "THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL"

PRICE 2d.

VOL. 1. No. 4. NOVEMBER 1932

## SUCCESS THROUGH PLAY

MARY M. MACTAGGART

### 'Toys that Do'

QUITE recently a little boy, aged  $2\frac{1}{2}$  years, was taken by his mother to a Child Guidance Clinic because he was bad tempered and irritable at home. On leaving the Clinic the child gave a thorough demonstration of a temper tantrum, passionately demanding to have home with him what he called 'the toys that do'. This summed up the whole situation. Although aged only  $2\frac{1}{2}$  years, the child had the mental development of an average child aged 3 years 9 months, and the only trouble was that, at home, the parents underestimated his capacity, and did not provide him with enough to do.

The  $2\frac{1}{2}$ -year-old had cupboards full of expensive toys in his nursery, but, from the descriptions of these toys given, many were suitable for a school boy with a mechanical bent; others were more suitable for a 12 months' old child, and there were few with which the small boy in question could continue to play with much satisfaction. Some suggestions on the subject of simple constructive toys effected a dramatic change in the child's behaviour. Instead of being irritable and bad tempered, he became a happy and contented child who played constructively for long periods by himself.

### Infants Need Problems to Solve

We are only beginning to realize, I think, that, just as the adult spends much of his time in solving problems of varying types, and of varying degrees of difficulty, and just as the school-child is daily faced with problems of one kind and another, so does the pre-school child, and even the infant, demand problems to solve.

It seems absurd to say that infants can solve problems and that they must be given problems to solve; yet this is true. The infant who stretches out a small uncertain hand to grasp an object is, although unaware of the fact, facing a problem which is difficult for him, viz. that of making eye and hand function together. This problem, for the infant, is as difficult as an algebraic example to a 12-year-old child. The child aged 9 months who notices a crumb on the floor or table, and who, after much practice, succeeds in

picking it up with a delicate pincer movement of the thumb and first finger has solved a problem which requires effort and persistence for successful solution. The child, aged 20 months, engaged in replacing a number of bricks in a box which just holds them, is up against something just as difficult for him as the problems of organization which the director of



*Purposeful Play*



*Playing Trains**Pestalozzi—Fröbelhaus*

an institution meets in his daily work. The 2-year-old who succeeds in buttoning the large button on a doll's dress is achieving something quite as valuable to him as the mastering of long division at a later stage.

#### **Something Attempted, Something Done**

The school-boy who solves correctly an arithmetical question is justified in congratulating himself on a task well done. The adult who thinks out a plan of action in a difficult situation is conscious of relief or satisfaction. That is to say, the solution of a problem is followed by an emotional effect. This is characteristic of infancy and of early childhood as well as of school life and of adult life. The young child who builds a crazy tower with bricks laughs with joy at the trembling result of his skill. The 4-year-old who draws something he has not attempted before must run to show his achievement to the most important people in his world. The 5-year-old who succeeds in sending a boat skimming across a pond needs to repeat an activity which has

given him satisfaction. This satisfaction involved in play, and following on achievement in play, is the basis of success in life because it is not attained without effort and persistence, and these qualities are essential for success.

#### **Nothing Succeeds like Success**

Success makes success. The infant, the child or the adult who achieves a task successfully is, by this success, encouraged to try something even more difficult than he has attempted before. Success in adult life is ordinarily built up on tiny steps, each reached through effort and persistence, each successful step meaning satisfaction, and, too, a growth in the self-confidence that is necessary for the tackling of something more difficult than has been attempted before. There is a very good example of this in the case of Joy, a little girl aged 8 years, who was not as happy as her name suggests. The child was retarded in mental development, and so bitterly did she resent her inferiority to her fellows both in school work and in play, that she was irritable and aggressive with other children, and extremely difficult in behaviour both at home and in class.

Joy refused any special help with reading and arithmetic, but she was taught how to skip. This was a bewildering achievement which did much to increase confidence in herself. I understand that, within a few weeks, Joy wore out six pairs of shoes by skipping, and that her father playfully threatened to put her into clogs! But more important than that is the fact that the child immediately and spontaneously demanded special help with reading and arithmetic, most emphatically stating that anyone who could learn to skip could learn to read and count. The skill which the child acquired through play equipped her with a mental attitude which enabled her to stand up to difficulties which were previously too great for her to face. It is just this mental attitude which can be gained through play that constitutes one of the values of play, and this is a value which we so often overlook.

#### **Learning Through Play**

Too often we conceive of play only in terms of amusement, or as the means by



which a child gains control over his body. Equally important is the fact that through play a child learns to use his mind and to work up to capacity. Through play a child builds up an idea of himself as a person who is capable of doing things.

A well-known psychologist suggests that children do not play because they are young, but they are young so that they may play. Human beings have a long period of infancy and childhood because they have so much to learn, and their means of learning is play. Play is something done for its own sake. The 6-year-old plays shop not to improve her arithmetic, but because the game itself is felt to be worth the effort she puts into it.

The basis of work is play. The child who plays actively, constructively and well, will later on work with the same keen concentration and eager enthusiasm as he devotes to play.

The adult only thinks when there is a problem to solve. So with the child. Then, particularly in these days of financial insecurity and anxiety, let us remember that the training for successful life work begins in the nursery, and so let us take care to provide the child with materials in which and through which he will find problems to solve.

### Choosing Children's Toys

Play materials and toys for children can be selected from at least two points of view: (1) because they look attractive to the adult selecting them; and (2) because they are suitable for the child concerned, that is to say, they provide for the child a problem which is difficult enough to be interesting yet is not so difficult as to make him feel incompetent or inadequate. Most parents seriously try to choose toys from the latter point of view, for older children particularly. The fact that their choice of toys for younger children is more often from the former is not entirely the parents' fault. There is on the market an insufficiency of moderately priced toys and constructive materials which present problems really suitable for the child between the ages of 6 months and 5 years.

'Toys that do', however, can be collected or constructed from materials which cost little or nothing. Empty boxes which open in a variety

of ways provide excellent problems for the young child to solve. A wooden box, with holes of various sizes on one side and a number of sticks of appropriate size to push through the holes, provides for the child aged about a year a variety of problems which are usually a joy to solve. Jig-saw puzzles with only two, or three, or perhaps a few more pieces can be made at home, at little cost, from a piece of wood and a picture out of an old, but favoured story book.

### Don't Solve Problems for Them

A mother who is now engaged in finding and constructing for her little boy a variety of 'toys that do' told me that until recently she had anxiously taught her little boy through his toys so that he would be clever. She said that she had rarely given the child a chance to experiment and try for himself, but had always given him a demonstration of what precisely should be done with each piece of toy material. When the child was aged 3 years however, she discovered that he completely



*Trains and Station*

[The Downs School,  
Colwall, Malvern



depended on her for guidance in any new situation and when in the slightest difficulty, and so she redirected her energies into planning play materials, carefully graded with regard to the difficulties they presented, with which the child could experiment and through which he could grow in independence and in self-confidence. The result of this redirection of energy on the mother's part is delightful, for the 3-year-old is now an independent young man, who says 'I can' rather than 'I can't'.

#### Play With, not instead of, Your Child

The parent is the natural playmate of the young child, and, through his handling of the young child at play the parent can build the foundation of an attitude in the child which will make for his later success. The parent who is the best playmate for the young child is the one who does not play with the child nearly so actively as he appears to do, but who lets the child achieve as much as he is capable of doing and who gives assistance only at the point when it is necessary. The parent who is the best playmate for the young child is always encouraging and his success is attained when he is able quietly to withdraw from the situation and see the child carry on absorbed in his play.



*Work is Play!*

#### Learning to Play with Others

The problem of group play involves many questions which cannot be raised in this short article. It is perhaps here sufficient to say that, just as the child learns to make the most of his own powers through individual play, so he learns to get on with his fellows through group play. The successful worker is not only the one who is able to tackle actual difficulties in work with confidence but the one who does not find it difficult or unpleasant to mix with people. Social adjustment is gained through group games and group play. What must be kept in mind, however, is that the young child's entry into group play and group games is a gradual one. It is normal for a young child only to have momentary contacts with other children

at first, so we must not expect him too soon to co-operate in play with children of his own age and older, nor fear that the two- or three-year-old who finds playing alone more satisfactory than playing with others will grow up to be a monster of egotism.

Some time back in a famous boat race the criticism of the losing crew was that they were slow in 'gripping their beginning'. The child who reaches the stage of playing actively, constructively and well has already gripped the beginning of a successful life.



# POINTS ON PLAY

1. Play is not a mere amusement to the child, far less an idle way of spending time.
2. Through play, children do four main things: (a) Develop their bodies; (b) learn to handle things skilfully; (c) develop their powers of invention and resource; (d) develop their social instincts.
3. By giving your child too many toys, you make him careless and bored.
4. By giving your children toys with which they can *do* something, you are not only giving them a profitable occupation for the moment; you are encouraging in them initiative, perseverance and other qualities that will stand them in good stead all their lives.
5. The question of the ownership of toys is rather a difficult one. Children must learn a proper sense of responsibility for things, but one must beware of encouraging them to be possessive, with a too selfish sense of 'mine and thine.'
6. Do not worry if your young child prefers to play alone. He must find his feet in life before he can co-operate successfully with others.
7. On the other hand, make sure that he is not cut off from children of his own age.
8. Don't play with your children out of a sense of duty, or because you have a theory that it's the right thing to do. They'll be better off playing alone if this is your attitude.
9. Try to set apart some time each day in which you can *enjoy* your children, and they you.
10. Remember that children resent your interference but welcome your interest.

## HELPFUL

### On Play



THE CREATIVE HOME. *Ivah Everett Deering*. (Smith, New York. \$1.50.) Written by a parent for parents, telling them how to foster the native powers of their children through creative play.

PLAY IN EDUCATION. *Joseph Lee*. (Macmillan Co., New York. 6s. 6d.) An interesting attempt to show that what grown-ups dismiss as 'child's play' is really the most important thing in the child's life.

THE JOLLY BOOK OF BOXCRAFT. (Cox & Co. 3s. 6d.) This is written for children rather than for their parents, but contains many helpful suggestions for both.

## BOOKS

### On Habits

PARENTS AND THE PRE-SCHOOL CHILD. *Blatz & Bott*. (Dent. 6s.) Ways and means of avoiding pitfalls that lie in the way of every normal child in the course of his social adjustments.

HEALTH AND EDUCATION IN THE NURSERY. *Victoria Bennett and Susan Isaacs*. (Routledge. 6s.) Good habits and the construction of a healthy environment, in view of the real nature of the process of growing up.

THE YOUNG CHILD. (Melbourne University Press. 2s.) Five lectures on child management, dealing with 'Why Children are Naughty', 'The Mischief of Fear', 'Obedience', 'Temper', 'The Growth of Personality.'





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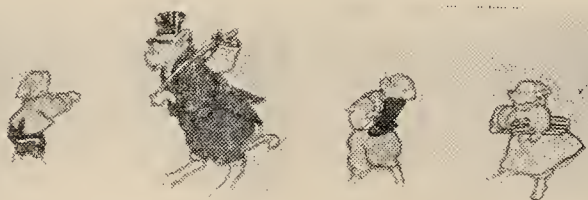
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## TOYS

**W**E grown-ups are facing another Christmas, with the mixed feelings that Christmas always brings us now. But no child ever says 'Another Christmas'. A year is a very long, busy and interesting thing—not to be compared with any other year, and its climax is Christmas—not to be compared with any other Christmas.

I suppose that, however much we may economize upon our adult friends and relatives this Christmas, we shall still manage to put something aside for presents for the children. And we shall still manage to resist the temptation to give them 'something useful'—stockings or gloves—not only because we remember how bitterly we resented this ourselves, but also because we are coming to realize that play is one of the most important things in a child's life and that a really thoughtfully chosen toy is more useful to his proper development than any article of clothing.

### Learning Through Play

Children and all young creatures play with a purpose—not merely for amusement's sake, not to put in time, but to gain control first of their own bodies and then of their material surroundings. Through play they learn to recognize the boundaries of their world, but they also gain the strength and skill and persistence which will enable them to reach and over-step these boundaries, so widening their childish horizon until it is as large as the adult world of their kind.

This is true of kittens and fledglings and lion-cubs. It is also true of human children, from the small black baby in the veldt who will find sticks and bones for playthings, to the children in our artificial urbanized homes for whom we shall be shopping this Christmas.

### Choose What They Want

The question is, what are we going to give them? In this matter of choosing suitable presents the children themselves often put us to shame. Even a quite small child does not give his parents toys or sweets or the things he would like himself, but realizes that his father smokes

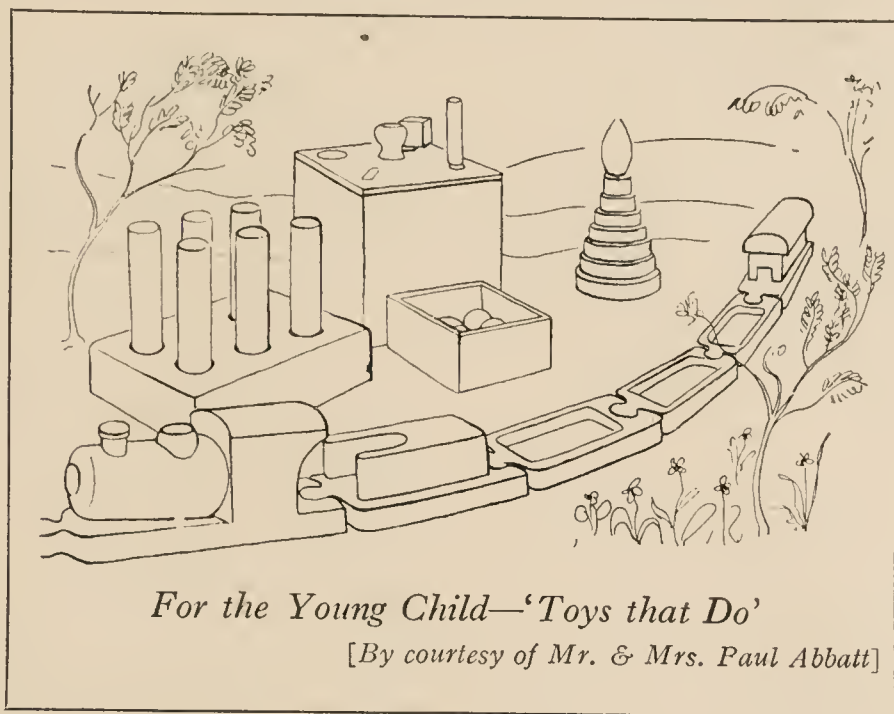
and shaves and that his mother writes letters and sews and perhaps likes things for her toilet table. Whereas grown-ups are still too prone to give children things which strike their own fancy, or because they feel vaguely that 'Johnny ought to like that', or even—and in this respect fathers are the worst offenders—because they have a sneaking desire to play

with that particular toy themselves. In this way hundreds of thousands of pounds are likely to be squandered, even this Christmas, on toys that are of no particular pleasure or benefit to the child and that may even be definitely harmful.

Now the wisest teachers are basing their work on the child's play instincts and his desire to create, and are linking school activities much more closely to everyday life. Wise parents are doing the same thing in the home—realizing play as part, and a very important part—of the whole life of the child.

### Safe, Solid and Suitable

Bearing these general principles in mind, what are we to demand of the toys we give this Christmas? The first things are easy: the toys must be safe, that is they must have no rough edges on which a small child can cut himself, nor poisonous paint which he can lick off to his undoing. Most of the toy-manufacturers see to these points themselves nowadays, but cheap imported toys should still be carefully scrutinized. Next, they should be solid and well-made, as flimsy toys beget no feelings of



*For the Young Child—'Toys that Do'*

[By courtesy of Mr. & Mrs. Paul Abbatt]



respect or responsibility in the child, but rather lead to an orgy of destructiveness.

### Dolls and Soldiers

Then they must suit the age and temperament of the child. One can lay down no hard and fast rules. A doll or teddy bear may be a real companion to an only child, or to the youngest of a family whose elder sisters always turned up their noses at such things. The son of the most thoughtful modern parents may clamour for toy soldiers, guns and swords. If he does, you will not cure his bellicosity by giving him a Noah's ark and preaching pacifism. Give him what he is longing for, and if you are on good terms with him, and respect him and he you, he will put away soldiers with other childish things when he is a little older.

### Constructive Toys

All toys should be able to be used constructively, either for making something or for adding to some collection. Among the constructive toys, bricks are of course old favourites. An English firm is producing large hollow blocks, 8 ins. by 8 ins. by 4 ins. and 8 ins. by 4 ins. by 4 ins., which make very satisfactory stairs that can be climbed, railway carriages that can be sat in and so on. The rather older and more mechanically minded children do wonders with Meccano and always welcome additions to their sets. Plasticine is one of the things that has a very long life in the nursery. Small children 'mess about with it', and older children use it in all sorts of ways. I have seen an excellent fleet of racing cars modelled from it, and it is a favourite

substitute for mortar with some young builders.

Next, there are puzzles of every kind, many of them savouring horribly of the intelligence test, but none the less absorbing for that. Among the best of these are the geographical jig-saws, which range from very simple maps of the world, in which each ocean and continent forms one piece, to most complicated ethnographical and industrial maps.

### Trains

Another old favourite is the train, which ranges from simple wooden trucks and engines that the two-year-old loves to drag about (there are some excellent new specimens of these on the market, with very simple couplings that the said two-year-old can manage for himself) to the beautiful productions of Hornby and Bassett-Lowke. Once a child has one of these, present-giving is much simplified, as any addition to their appurtenances is welcome, new lines, milk cans, points, signals and all the many parts of a railway terminus. With trains and a good supply of wooden bricks the whole nursery can be converted into a railway system on wet days, and a couple of tons of sand, in which tunnels and gradients can be devised, makes the dingiest garden an ideal playground.

Other children prefer the basic tools and materials for construction to any toy. To these a simple carpenter's bench, or, failing that, a fret-saw and some sheets of three-ply wood, or a paint box and easel are all that is necessary.

Another rich source of Christmas presents is of course the book shop, but this will be dealt with in our December issue.



*Boy making Aeroplane*

*By courtesy of Samuel Jones.*



# THE NEW ERA

## IN HOME AND SCHOOL

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### Outlook Tower

IN the interests of a balanced budget it is proposed that parents in England should be expected to pay for the secondary education of their children except where a rigorous inquiry into their financial position shows this to be impossible. This would limit the number of free places at present available in the secondary schools.

Mr. Ramsbotham, in replying to the House of Commons debate on this subject, said that 'the number of children who could definitely profit by a secondary education was limited. Secondary schools were for selected children of intellectual superiority, and from those schools the nation should expect to get its leaders in industry and commerce and the professions. . . . If free secondary education for all were possible, it might very well turn the whole country into a vast educational soup kitchen from which few would get proper rations and fewer still be able to digest what they got.'\*

Such a statement forces all those who are interested in education to review their position.

#### Our Criticism

For our part, we would gladly concede that secondary education as it exists at present is suitable only for the intellectually gifted child. We do not wish to see it extended *in its present form* to all children, for we feel that, where this has been done, as in the United States and some of the Dominions, the general intellectual level has perforce been lowered and the intellectually gifted child finds himself severely handicapped. If, on the other hand, academic standards are doggedly maintained, an increased number of children who are not

academically minded will be submitted to the intolerable pressure of competitive examinations.

We do not wish, therefore, to urge that secondary education as it exists at present should be made available to all children, nor, for the moment, do we quarrel with the economizers, who say that parents who *can* pay for the education of their children should do so.

But we do maintain that the State can find no better outlay for its resources than the building of a healthy and well-equipped younger generation. And we also deny that any normal child is incapable of benefiting by education after the age of fourteen.

The present form of secondary education should be strictly reserved for the few who are capable of entering the learned professions and higher branches of industry, and should be made available to all of these, however limited their parents' means.

#### Education for Citizenship

But this leaves uncatered-for the vast majority of children who, as future citizens of a democracy, *must* have some sort of education beyond that given in the primary school. Under any form of autocracy the level of culture of the ordinary citizen does not greatly affect affairs of state. But the ordinary citizens of a democracy are called upon to vote upon a series of vast and far-reaching questions, and their decisions determine the policies of their country. Nobody will pretend that education that stops at 14 can equip children to make decisions of this magnitude.

Democracy based upon an ill-informed electorate is a chimera and a fast-vanishing one at that. Democracy based upon an electorate

\* *The Times*, Thursday, November 17th, 1932.



that is really capable of thinking out its problems has never been tried out—at any rate not in modern times. One of the functions of secondary education should therefore be to give training in citizenship. This should include practice in co-operative living, and the shouldering of responsibility, in the making and keeping of laws. It should also include a broadly-based course covering social history, civics, economics, designed not of course ‘to give a thorough grounding in these subjects’ but to give adolescence a vital picture of how civilization works and what difficulties and problems beset it.

### *Education for Leisure*

But education has at least two other functions—that of equipping the pupil to earn his daily bread and that of enabling him to make the most of his individual powers for the enrichment of his personal life. In his article on training for leisure, Dr. Jacks quotes an unemployed man who complains that, whereas his education equipped him, not too adequately, for his job, it equipped him in no sort of way for the employment of his enforced leisure.

If an inquiry were made of all adults who have attended secondary schools, this would probably be found to be quite a common complaint. There is no doubt about it, our rapidly changing society demands a drastic overhauling of the curriculum of the secondary school, and the revised curriculum must take into account two things: the increased leisure that is likely to result from the growing mechanization of industry; and the assertion of modern psychology that unless human beings have opportunities for creative self-expression they find it very difficult to lead happy and well-adjusted lives.

In view of this the section in this issue dealing with trends in creative self-expression should be of special interest, particularly when read in conjunction with Dr. Jacks’ article.

### *Æsthetic Training*

No phase of modern education is more important to the general development of human beings, and consequently to the society of to-morrow, than is the æsthetic training of the individual. Those of us who have had an opportunity of seeing

the powers latent in children revealed in a suitable environment will affirm that within every child there are potentialities for creative work which have no opportunity for expression in the curriculum of the secondary school of to-day.

By ignoring these potentialities we are impoverishing both the individual and society. We are robbing the former of the exaltation that accompanies even the humbler achievements of the craftsman, and the latter of the communal serenity that should accrue to a community that employs its leisure creatively.

Even among those who are convinced of the importance of giving scope to the child’s æsthetic activities in school there is some disagreement as to the rôle of the adult in their development. Some teachers would refrain from guiding the child’s efforts in any way, even at the risk of depriving him of necessary techniques and so handicapping him severely in later life. But the fault in the ordinary school lies more often in imposing upon the child adult standards of drama and music and art, and in making of these subjects not an adventure, but a wearisome struggle in techniques, unrelated to the needs of life or to the urge for expression.

One has only to go to the studios of Čížek, to the art classes of Lismer in Toronto or to any other of the modern protagonists in the newer methods of teaching art to children, to be converted. Compare the older methods of teaching music to children, the painful process of learning the piano, with the newer trends in musical self-expression, as seen in the classes of Satis Coleman at the Lincoln School, Alice Fellows at Toledo, Margaret James or any other of our modern teachers. Children are there allowed to discover for themselves the kind of experience that music can offer them, and to express whatever musical capacity they have. And it has been asserted by experts that there is no such thing as a non-musical person. There are only adults and children whose musical capacity has been inhibited by the wrong type of musical instruction.

### *Rhythm—a Basic Fact*

Rhythm, too, is now understood as a basic need of the human being—rhythm in physical movement,



rhythm in the emotional life, rhythm in intellectual life—making for adjusted personalities through which that intangible elusive thing called spiritual power or personality or genius can function. The universe is rhythmic. Unless we human beings can attune ourselves to its rhythm we are not happy.

There is no room in this issue to deal with all the aspects of this important subject. We have already published a whole number devoted to dramatic work in schools, also numbers on music, art and crafts.

Creative activity is one of the experiences common to mankind. It is, of course, by no means the only one, but it is the only one that is easily shared by men of very diverse race, partly because its products are externalized. The emotional experience of the artist must always hold something of the same elements—

the quickening of the senses, the stirring of an unearthly awareness, the appeasement of completion. The recognition of such common experiences surely helps forward the unification of mankind. And if every child is capable of sharing such experience in some measure, we should do our utmost to see that he is not prevented from doing so.

We look forward to the day when the creative arts will have their proper place in every type of educational institution, when it will no longer be possible to say that a child cannot benefit from education after fourteen years of age, and when we shall not be wasting the talents inherent in the children born into the world, but shall give them opportunities for development and growth, to make them happier human beings, and to produce a better state of society.

## The Coming Leisure

L. P. JACKS

OUR traditional methods of education are adapted to a state of society where labour accounts for the longer and more important part of life and leisure for the shorter and less important. A vocational tinge of various intensity is present in all of them, though sometimes curiously out of date. Play, of course, is provided for and encouraged, but its function is that of a necessary interlude to education rather than an essential part of it. Jack must have his play or he would be a dull boy when turned on to his lessons. If it could be shown that Jack's lessons have the effect of making him a dull boy at his play—which, I believe, sometimes happens—it would be lightly regarded. His play falls outside the work of the educator proper . . . Schools and colleges, we admit, must have their playgrounds, but their real business lies inside the walls and requires the pupil to retain a sitting posture while the transaction proceeds. These institutions operate on the *mind*, but play is mainly an affair of the body, an inferior thing, which needs, however, to be kept in good condition to support its superior partner, the mind.

### Leisure and the Machine Age

Should a time ever come when labour and leisure reversed their present proportions in social life, labour becoming the short part of it and leisure the long, our ideas about leisure in general, and especially about the function of education in regard to it, would have to be revised. Now, thanks to the way in which machinery is taking over the burden of human toil, this reversal of proportion is in actual and rapid process. High authorities are predicting the advent in the near future of a five days' working week and a four hours' working day. Under these conditions a system of education which prepared human beings for the work and duties limited to so short a time, and left them unprepared for their occupation in the vast amount of leisure remaining over, would at once declare itself an anachronism, and the most fanatical believer in vocational training would perceive its insufficiency.

With leisure to be dealt with in these huge quantities, it would be apparent to all thinking persons that the fate of civilization depended on the use that was made of it;



the central interests of education would shift from the work time to the play time of society, and the proposal to found a School of Play, a College of Leisurecraft, or National University of Recreational Art would then seem as reasonable as it now seems unreasonable—unreasonable at least to those who have never thought about the matter.

A letter received from one of the unemployed, an educated man, gives us the needed hint. 'My education,' he writes, 'prepared me, though not too well, for my job. But now that my job has ceased I am become like an *empty barrel*. Would to God I had something creative to do! But they taught us nothing of that either at school or college.'

### Creative Activity

The leisure of a man who works four hours a day will differ from that of a man who works eight, not only by a difference of quantity, but by a more significant difference of quality. For, whereas the eight-hours man knocks off with energy largely spent on the day's work, the four-hours' man will knock off with enough energy left for a far livelier use of his leisure than the other would feel inclined for. He would probably demand something more active and, if he were intelligent, would curse those responsible for his education (like the correspondent cited above) if they had failed to prepare him for it.

From the social point of view the matter assumes an immensely serious aspect. Contemplating the enormous amount of human energy that would be released under a five-days' week and a four-hours' day—or by an approach to that—an appalling prospect rises up when we think of it as all expended in a quest for the external excitements, thrills, stimulants (alcoholic or otherwise), and ready-made pleasure now demanded by the multitudes whom fatigue, boredom, idleness, neurasthenia, or low physical condition indispose for anything else.

Viewed from the ground of creative activity, it will be seen that the distinction between labour and leisure is not rooted in the nature of things. When either of these supposed opposites is occupied in skilful or beautiful exertion it becomes indistinguishable from the other ;

labour, creatively spent, furnishing the 'happiness' expected from leisure, and leisure the discipline associated with hard work. Many testimonies to this effect can be gathered from the biographies of artists, inventors, and creators, and, indeed, of great men in general. Outsiders may draw a sharp distinction between their work and their play, but these excellent workmen are less inclined to do so. 'My work is my recreation,' said Thomas Edison—he worked eighteen hours a day—'and my recreation is my work.'

This tendency of labour and leisure to coalesce as they approach the point of skilful exertion should be valuable as a guiding principle to those who are grappling with the difficult but now urgent problem of education for leisure. It indicates that skill, which includes knowledge, but goes beyond, should be the objective. And education for leisure conducted on those lines would be education for labour as well.

### The Education of to-morrow

There are many dark situations when a wise man of action will say, with J. H. Newman, 'I do not ask to see the distant scene—one step enough for me'—always provided he is reasonably sure that his 'one step' is in the right direction. It were much to be wished that this frame of mind were commoner in dealing with the great problems and crises of our times; for it is certain that none of us can foresee, still less control, what the end of it all is to be. That 'distant scene' is impenetrably hidden from the wisest. In the case before us—that of the coming leisure—I am by no means sure that the first step is being taken wisely when it consists in giving everybody the kind of education which consists in learning to read, write and do sums.

There is no doubt as to the value of these accomplishments, but doubt is permissible as to whether they form the true *beginning* of human education, the true basis, or growing point, from which all the rest must be built up or developed. I would suggest that a better beginning would be made, a firmer basis laid, a more promising growing point brought to life, if we began by teaching every human being to acquire an *intelligent control of his own*



body as the first step towards intelligent control of anything else, such as the activities of his mind, his passions, the forces of nature, or the fortunes of his fellow-citizens, as when he is asked to give his vote at elections.

### Body and Mind

There can be no doubt that prevalent leisure habits are due quite as much, if not more, to something wrong with the management of our bodies, as to anything wrong with the management of our minds. This first step, which absurd ideas about the body's inferiority to the mind

have so far prevented us from effectively making, would unquestionably be in the right direction, and it would be followed inevitably and rapidly by other steps on the same road, would give an immense impulse to the general advance, and lead to the opening up of avenues of creative skill in a thousand directions which are now closed. It might even lead to a great revival of the fine arts. Moreover, it would be a blow struck against that terrible process of biological deterioration which is going on apace in our cities. . . .

[Reprint from the *Observer*, September 25th, 1932 by kind permission of the Editor.]

## Rhythm

CHARLOTTE BLENSDORF

WE talk much about educating the whole child, but I am not sure that we always set about our work in the most direct and simple manner. We are prone to theorize too much, whereas we should do far better to *observe* and to base our training of the child upon his own spontaneous ways of learning and growing.

### How the Infant Learns

If you watch a very young infant you will find that its earliest reactions are mainly negative. It shrinks from light and sound and draws its small limbs together in protest. Yet this very movement of contraction brings a strong stimulus to the child's vitality, deeper breathing, stronger circulation and new powers that make for growth. This increased vitality enables it to face the

very stimuli from which it shrank and to react to them, not by withdrawal, but by listening and looking and stretching out its arms to touch and handle.

In all these early experiences it is the *whole* child that reacts. The body with its senses is the instrument of the mind, and the two keep pace with one another in the gradual attainment of serviceableness. Think of the small baby of three months, turning its head towards light or sound. It does not merely use eyes or ears but its whole body and mind. It may be said to be *all* attention. So, too, a little later, when it is making experiments in the touching and grasping of an object, it reaches out with the whole effort of body and mind and, having grasped the thing, it examines it by putting it into its mouth, by banging it upon any near-by object, as well as by

looking at it, often with squinting concentration. These movements bring new vitality and tune the whole system to new experiences.

### The Body—a Photograph of the Emotions

From moving only the head and arms towards the source of stimulation, we see the





child becoming more and more accurate in its reactions, and gradually freeing itself from its dependence upon adults. It starts to crawl and then to walk and run—to get at things for itself. Still the body is acting as the instrument of the mind, and its development is balanced by the needs of mind and spirit.

It is wonderful to find that the body and its movements give a perfect photograph of the emotions that the child is experiencing at any given moment. A good pedagogue will be open to the whole of the child's way of expressing itself through its body, and will cultivate powers of seeing and understanding. As the child emerges from babyhood we must follow still more closely his natural ways of learning.

### On Being a Horse

A little boy three or four years old sees a horse. He gathers a whole and very detailed impression of the horse—its shape and colour; the way it moves at a walk, trot or gallop; how it eats; how it breathes; how its hooves sound on the roadway—in short everything which constitutes the horse; and he is taking in these impressions with all his senses. After a short time we find that the boy will suddenly move about like a horse, snort like a horse, go on all fours, crop his food out of his father's hat. If you say to him: 'Come along, Dobbin', he is sure to be with you much more quickly than ever his Christian name would have induced him to come. He actually is the horse. This means that, by reproducing his impression with the whole of his body, he is projecting the picture which his mind has stored up, and by doing so repeatedly his mind gains a clearer and clearer inner



picture of the horse.

By experimenting thus with his body, his mind grows clear and his limbs clever in co-ordination and readiness to serve as an instrument. We call this process the child's play, but all educationists know by now that it is the most sincere work, and is leading to the most complete development.

At the same time we have *das Gesamtkunstwerk*—a complete art in its most primitive stages. The child uses all our human ways of expression to serve the purpose of recreating his impressions. He moves, talks, sings, peoples space with his concrete imaginings—saying 'Here is the staircase we must climb, here is the little door where we must duck our heads, here is the gap in the hedge where we must crawl'. This ability to people space is at the root of all our plastic arts and crafts.

### Rhythm—a Joy and a Discipline

Let us go on to observe the child and find out what it is in its play that gives it the thrill, the discipline and the strong emotion. My little friend Stig, not quite two years of age yet, loved to slide down from a very high chair, arriving on the floor with a bang of his shoes and climbing up again with great difficulty to start the same thing once more. He did this about ten or twelve times, shining with joy. By the fourth and fifth times the bangs were already coming at regular intervals and I now joined in the game by saying 'Bang!' each time, to his great delight.

He adapted his movements to the interval of time in a very intelligent way, and his difficulties in climbing up became less and less as the rhythm carried him forwards. If you observe



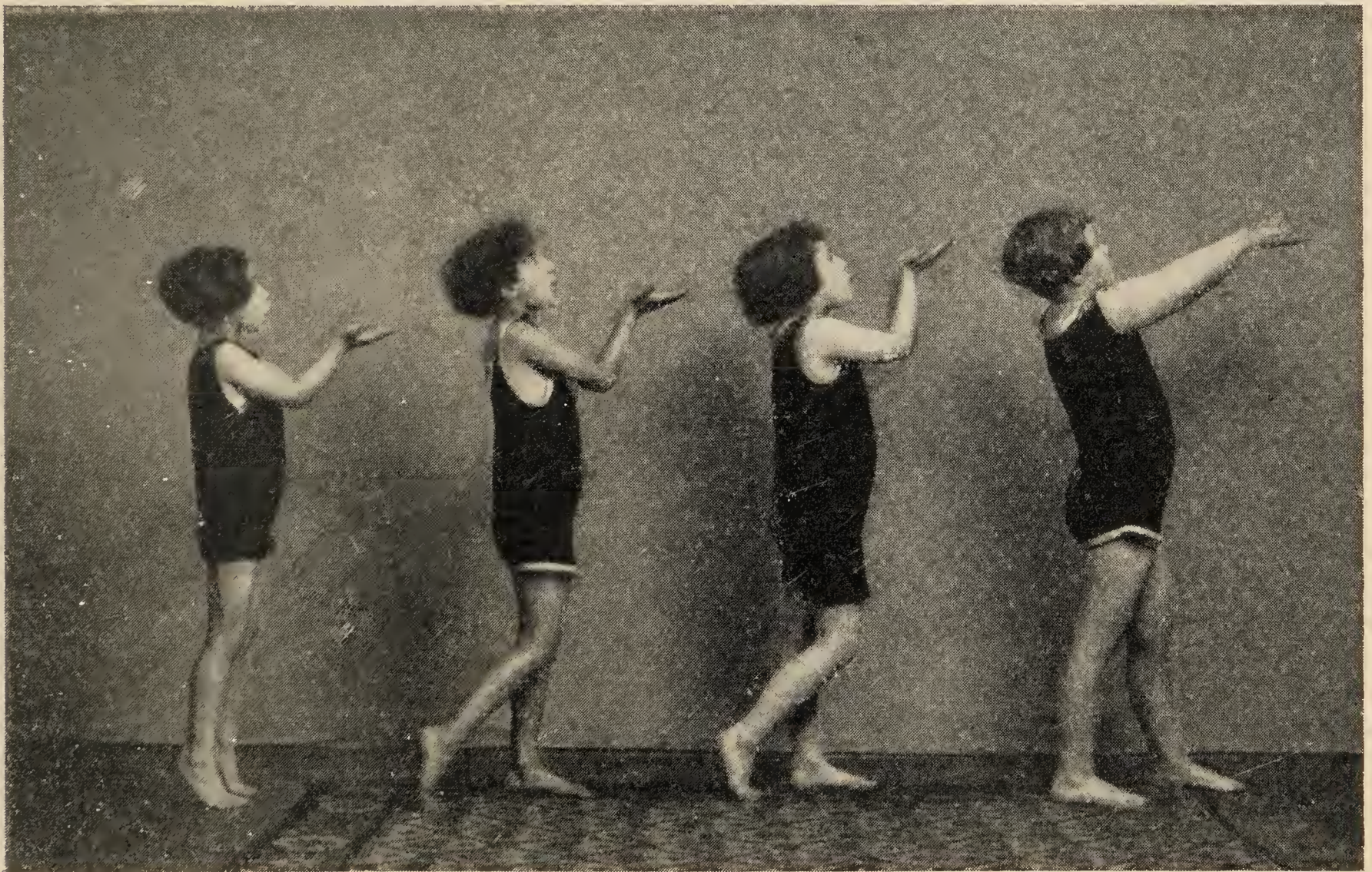
children you will find that this discipline of rhythm is natural to them and a great asset for their concentration on the experience they are just coping with. Stig's rhythm consisted of gathering up his forces to climb on to the chair, reaching the highest point of joy and dynamic tension once he was up there successfully, and then sliding slowly down till he naturally came to the point of release and relaxation with the bang on the floor. The regularly spaced bangs did not of themselves constitute the whole of the rhythm but only marked its natural course, coming as they did at the moment of relaxation. The child's breathing clearly underlined the rhythm of his actions. For instance, the tension in sliding down was shown by his holding his breath, and the relaxation by his giving it out strongly, shouting and laughing, the moment he came to the floor. This sort of natural breathing exercise vitalized the boy very much, as might be seen from the colour of his little face, his sparkling eyes and the whole expression of his body.

### The Artist's First Tool—His Body

Here again we see the body as the instrument. This time it is used to maintain its own health without any specially thought-out exercises. It is used freely and naturally as the instrument of the mind, and is given ample scope and time to move according to its own law of rhythm. In this way the vital functions, as for instance breathing, will keep their natural health or will regain it where it may have been impaired through bad influences of environment or other causes.

All art needs its perfected instrument. Only if you get a clear inner picture of your experiences as a child by means of using your body in its right connection, will you be able to conquer the special techniques of special arts to such a point that not the technique itself but the meaning of what you have to say stands out clearly. Then and then only will your productions deserve to be termed art.

The child develops a new sort of quality which I should like to call 'being rhythmical'.





This means that it is able to detect the law of rhythm wherever it meets it, that is to say throughout the whole realm of human experience. But—and this is important—this essential rhythm is not to be found otherwise than by experience. It cannot be learnt at second-hand and the source of its understanding lies in bodily movement.

### Rhythm and Growth

After many years of experiment carried out the world over, we are now able to assess the importance of movement in the whole development of the child. It is an integral part of the development of the *mind* and not merely a letting off of superfluous physical energy that can be

catered for in odd lessons in the gymnasium or dancing room.

Dramatizing is the ideal start for all artistic creative work as it contains the need for all the other arts. But to do it well and to open through it the way to languages, literature, music, dance and the plastic arts and their appreciation, the teacher must know in himself and in his pupils the basic law of movement and rhythm. Only so can he prevent the loss of real natural vitality in the process of intellectual growth. Salvation does not lie in specializing in creative art work to counterbalance intellectual strain. It lies in a realization of the source of both intellect and creative emotion. This source is the vital rhythm which sets in motion a harmonious working of body, mind and spirit.

## Creative Music

ALICE FELLOWS

THE child naturally expresses his feelings in movement and sound. These forms of expression may be very simple at first; a few large movements of arms and legs to express joy, but that is the beginning of dancing; two or three musical tones bubbling from a light heart, but that is the beginning of melody. So the child already knows rhythm and melody without being taught, and our concern is to guide and develop these expressions of feeling into an art. Our great care must be to guide slowly, allowing the child to experience to the full the pleasure of each successive step along the way.

Hand in hand with dancing and singing moves the art of instrumental music, but how may we introduce that art so that the child may talk to his instrument and it may talk back as friend to friend? The answer is, by finding an instrument so simple and musical that the child is instantly attracted, forgets himself and wishes to play upon it immediately. Such simple instruments are to be found among primitive peoples, who have the same child-like desire to express themselves freely in rhythmic movement and song. Would it not be wise to guide our children along such natural paths so that, when their love for music becomes firmly rooted, no amount of necessary practice in technique of piano or violin will be able to turn

them from their purpose? And those who have not the ability to cope with the difficulties of these most complicated instruments may find themselves happy in the possession of a simpler instrument in which they can confide and which will give forth a sympathetic response.

The most primitive instrument is the drum. All young children love a drum, not as a musical instrument, but as something upon which they can make a great deal of noise. But as they listen to the stories of the 'telegraph drum' of Africa, the drum-god that the natives in some parts of South America worship, and the Indian drum of North America that is called the 'singing god', their ideas change. Now they are anxious to make a drum of their own, to work out rhythms.

One class of ten- and eleven-year-old boys and girls, while studying the American Indians of the western part of the United States, wished to make a large Indian drum and rattles to be used in a rain dance. The children divided themselves into working groups as follows:—


1. To sandpaper the keg ready for decoration.
2. To sketch the dragon which the class had decided should decorate the drum.
3. To paint the design on the drum.
4. To write the words of the prayer for rain.
5. To compose music for the chant and write it in number notation.



6. To stretch the material over the head of the drum, which in this case was a piece of rubber from an old inner tube.

Suddenly in the midst of the work a small voice asked: 'Do you think rain is the thing we most need to pray for?' As suddenly all activity ceased, everyone looking at the little girl who had spoken. Her face was quivering, there were tears in her eyes. After a little hesitation and some questioning on the part of the teacher, she said: 'Don't you think we ought to pray for work instead of rain?' (The child's father was out of work.) The children caught the idea and in a flash the 'rain' drum became a 'work' drum and the dragon was changed into a factory, with many men entering its open doors and with smoke pouring from its chimneys to suggest plenty of work. The prayer that follows grew out of these feelings.

PRAYER FOR WORK.

4 |  |  
(86) 3 3 3 | (86) 3 3— |

Thanks, Great Spirit, for our lives,  
(65) 3 (65) 3 | (65) 3 3— |  
Thank you for the trees and flow'rs.  
(86) 3 3 3 | (86) 3 3— |  
Thank you for the sun and show'rs  
(65) 3 (65) 3 | (65) 3 3— |  
And for all the sweet out-doors.

(86) 3 3 3 | (86) 3 3— |  
Make the fact'ries open wide,  
(65) 3 (65) 3 | (65) 3 3— |  
Let the men begin to work,  
(86) 3 3 3 | (86) 3 3 .  
That the children may be fed  
(3) | (6 5) 3 (65) 3 | (65) 3 3— |  
And happiness come to ev'ryone.

(86) 3 3 3 | (86) 3 3 ,  
Please, Great Spirit, may we ask  
(3) | (65) 3 (65) 3 | (65) 3 3 ,  
For you to help us with our task :  
(3) | (86) 3 3 3 | (86) 3 3— |  
Our task is O, so very hard—  
(65) 3 (65) 3 | (65) 3 3— ||  
Please, Great Spirit, guide and guard.

Playing rhythms on a drum is an interesting

kind of musical expression, but one cannot play a *tune* on a drum. To make tuneful music there must be something that will give a ringing or singing sound. The children might go about the house and yard gently tapping everything they think might have a musical tone and making a list of these 'singing' things, from the door-knob in the hall and the teaspoon in the pantry to the blade of the hoe in the garden.

Once some children, with the help of their teacher, found five flower-pots that sang like the five black keys on the piano, if you begin to play on F sharp. Then they found out that these tones were the 'Chinese Scale'. They discovered that it is a very tuneful scale, so they composed a song upon it and a Chinese interpreter changed their English words, as nearly as he could, into the Chinese language. So the delighted children sang their song in Chinese to a tune they had made up themselves on the 'Chinese Scale'. Then, as Christmas was drawing near, they composed a Christmas Hymn on the same scale for everybody to sing on Christmas Eve.

A child of six found that the porcelain basin used by his teacher while washing the black-board could sing a lovely tone, so he matched his voice with it and sang little chants like these: 'I saw a robin in the apple tree'. 'I saw the moon last night'. Soon the entire class was singing on this note in a sweet 'floating' tone.

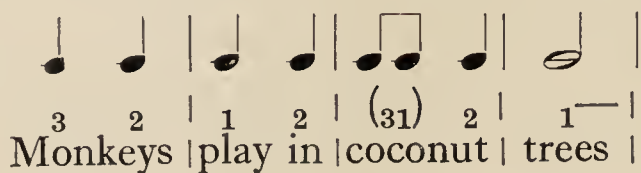
In a class where nearly one-half of the children were so-called monotones, they all sang sweetly and in tune after playing on the glasses for a few weeks. In tuning glasses, if you happened to have three glasses that sound nearly alike one might be left empty for Number 3; you could put a little water in another until it sounds right for Number 2; and still more water in the other one for Number 1. If you tap these glasses in this order, 3.2.1., it sounds like *Three Blind Mice*.

When they have three glasses tuned to a three-note scale and resting on a thick cloth, with a cloth-covered hammer ready for use, the children will wish to play many three-note tunes. Here are several songs with both words and tunes which they may sing as they play.

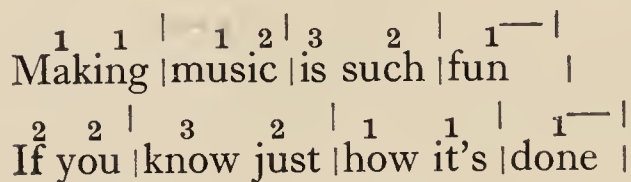
The first is a short tune which the natives in one part of Africa sing over and over—to different words, of course—sometimes for half



an hour without stopping. The line of notes shows the rhythm; the numbers show the tune.\*

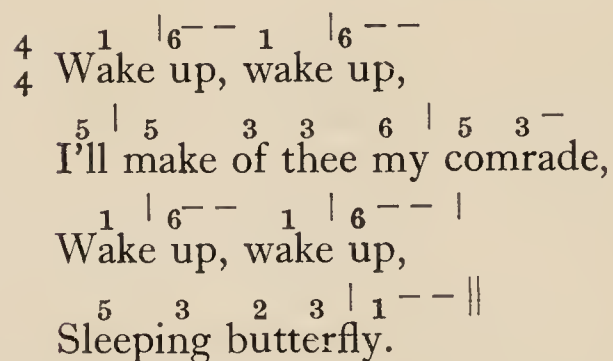
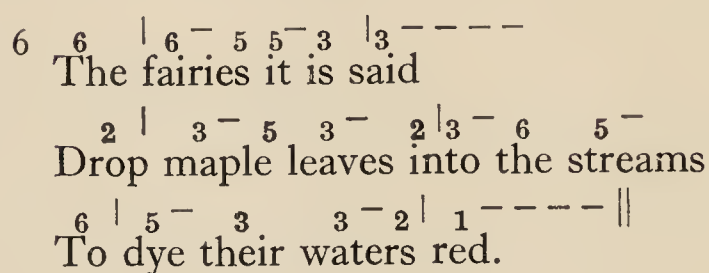
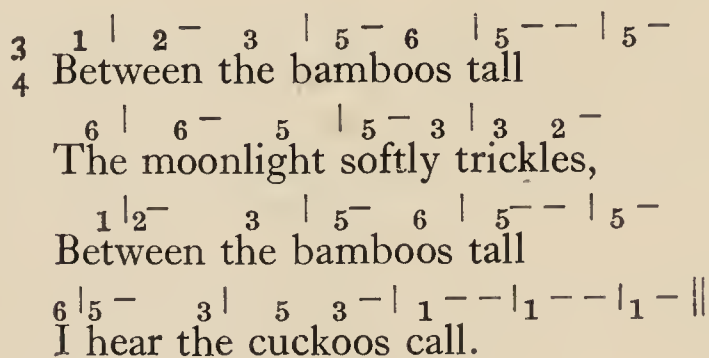


This is a song of only one phrase or musical idea. The next song has two phrases.



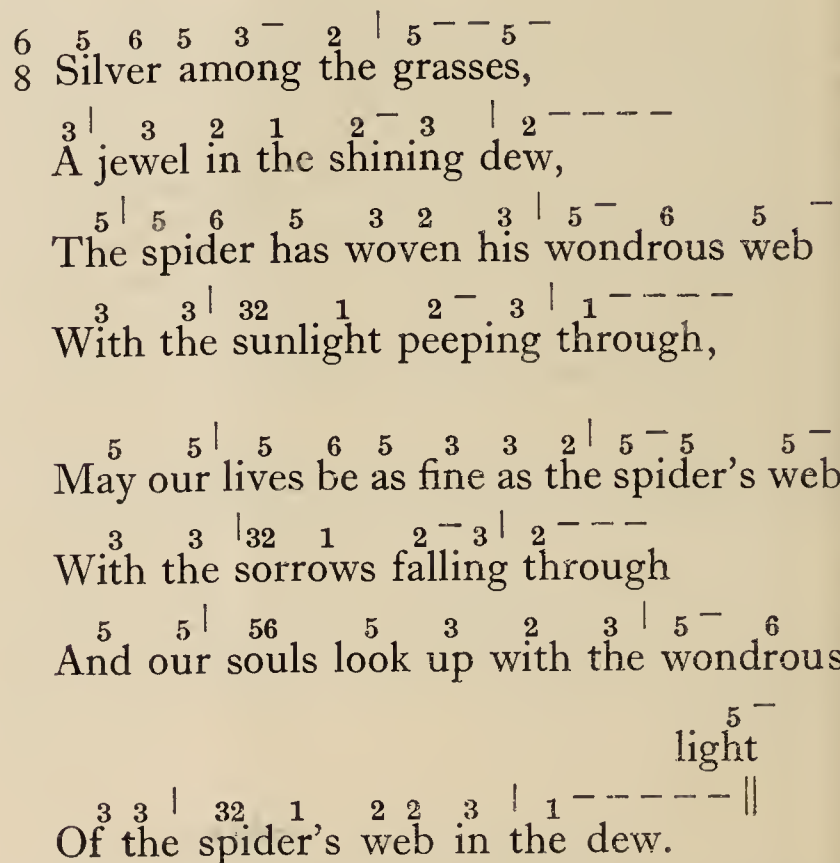
The children will try making three-note tunes of their own, perhaps making a tune for some verses they know.

A class of eleven-year-olds composed some delightful tunes for verses they found in a beautiful volume of Japanese art and poetry. They used the 'Chinese Scale' for composing. Here are some of them.



\* A dash after the number means the note is held for two beats - a half note; and a circle around two numbers means eighth notes.

And here is one, words and music by a little girl eleven years old.



There are other simple instruments not made by the children which produce enjoyable music. The ocarina or 'bird whistle' has a plaintive tone and is easily played. It is made of clay and is shaped like a sweet potato, by which name it is often called. The psaltery, a small harp-like instrument, creates a feeling for other stringed instruments, and there are two children who suddenly transferred their affections from the psaltery to the violin and are now playing in a children's orchestra. Without the psaltery experience these children might never have found their world of music in which they now live.

The sound of wood is very interesting to a child. Tap the rungs of a chair and the legs of a table and listen to the sound they make. Sometimes you can play 'Hot Cross Buns' on the rungs of a kitchen stool.

Some savage tribes have played on pieces of wood for centuries. Their instrument, made of various lengths of wood placed over a sounding-box, is called a marimba. Sometimes skin bags were used for resonators, the larger skins under the longer pieces of wood which produce the deeper tone. The xylophone of the modern orchestra is modelled after the ancient marimba. Boys and girls of eleven years or more may make this instrument of any kind of wood with a



ringing sound by following the simple directions given in *The Marimba Book*, by Satis N. Coleman.

At Lincoln School, Teachers College, New York City, an orchestra of more than one hundred children has been formed to play on simple instruments and three symphonies have been produced from the children's own tunes. A detailed description of the forming of the orchestra, the writing of the symphonies and their production, together with the full score in miniature of one of them is given in *The Children's Symphony*, by Satis N. Coleman.

Even though most of us may never write and produce a 'Children's Symphony' we may be sure that sincere effort in this direction will bring to the children values that will enable them to live richer and fuller lives. For Creative Music gives a broad background of musical knowledge which increases appreciation of all good music; gives the child the chance to find the instrument most congenial to him; builds up attitudes toward music which give pleasure throughout life; relates music to other fields of knowledge; and gives every child a simple and natural approach to music.

## Creative Art

ARTHUR LISMER

PERHAPS the most significant phase of development in the New Education throughout the world has been the change in attitude regarding the creative activities of children. Although official educational systems have only partly recognized this, a great deal has been done outside the official channels to establish the principle that the child—in addition to being a well-trained absorber of adult teaching which is designed to fit him into the world of adults—is also a creator in the realm of ideas which do not belong to the average grown-up.

Franz Čížek, in Austria, long ago, established the fact that child art and adult art are two totally different things—one natural, unconscious, and free; the other conscious, tradition-bound, and imitative. The former is unrestricted in its scope and free from fear; the latter is restricted to the demands of professional and commercial life. This, of course, is not strictly true in every sense, nor of every individual. In children as in adults, there are certain types that show absolutely no response to the creative idea. But among adult artists there are only a few who exhibit great creative activity and powers contributing to the world of inspiration as manifested in art. Great artists are great children who have intuitively placed creative ideas before technical perfection.

### Art Extends its Boundaries

Contributions to the enrichment of life and

art come through the world of ideas and not through the studios and galleries. The academic world of artists and societies has long believed that only a certain percentage (very, very low) can ever hope to achieve success in the fine arts. They have established a careful technique of art education, further to demonstrate the fact that only through long expenditure of time in art academies and studios can the arts of verisimilitude be acquired. Consequently professional artists, of undoubted skill—but none the less, bad educators—drew up the curricula of art education in art training institutions, and also, unfortunately, in the public elementary schools. Art was always, to them, a profession for the few.

Into this world comes the boisterous intrusion of modern commercialism, and a quickening of educational life, manifested in trade schools and in vocational and technical art courses, established in all countries to hasten the training of youth for specialization in some skill. The sterling thoroughness of the older academic methods has been lost in the maze of potted courses and short cuts to vocational ability. Art has become democratic, but also terribly brittle and business-like.

### Art a Social Function

In one sense the great mistake of officialism in art has been that it has failed to understand that art is an essential element in daily life—that art is not a matter of skill and exclusive



ability, but a universal gift possessed by all in some degree. This universality is the basis of modern teaching in the arts. It postulates the belief that representation is secondary to the idea of art as a social function, which is the concern of every person. It is not bounded by fixed rules and formulæ; its traditions are rooted deeply in the hearts of people. It is not something outside the life of man whose results he may contemplate and enjoy; but is a developing force within man himself.

All experience can be translated in terms of art, or through beauty. The expression of the emotional life of man has been richly presented through the arts; they are one of the keys to the mastery of life.

Heretofore education in the Fine Arts has been restricted to young adults. It is true, of course, that for many years the subject of Art *has* been on the curricula of elementary education, and that in various universities it has appeared in cultural and historical guise as a sort of optional subject contributory to history, archæology, and the classics. But these forms of art education are neither expression nor interpretation. They produce skill and knowledge but not capacity. They give no outlet to youthful energy. They prescribe life in small traditional doses; whereas education *for* life includes the idea of art, in the fullest sense, for life's sake. In the new

education, art is not a subject nor a profession but a way of life, a release for spiritual forces which are strong in children and as essential to growth as body-building exercises and mental stimulants.

### The Child—The True Artist

Children are the same, the world over. National character accounts for slight differ-

ences in attitude and emotional capacity. In some nations the children have inherited a rich and picturesque past with all its store of architecture and symbolism. In some countries the children are early inured to political strife and revolution, or have even been forced to flee their native land. But Art Galleries, Museums, Libraries and cultural centres the world over have given to children and



*Drawn by a 13 year old pupil of Arthur Lismer  
at Toronto Art Gallery*

adults the habit of participation in a few of the richer experiences of life. It matters little whether the centre is Paris, Vienna, London, Cleveland, or Calcutta, the child's mind, varying in direction, influenced by national environment, heredity and experience, is creative in its unfoldment.

Strong in impulses, fresh and buoyant in outlook, with courage born of ignorance of tradition and precedent, the child moves fearlessly from experience to experience, establishing itself in the world of things as they are. Children *do* contribute a great deal in the



upward trend of human groping towards the light. Long before we adults credit them with discretionary powers, they give themselves whole-heartedly to the moulding of adult minds, not only their own, but those of older people whom they meet in their forward march.

### Čižek the Liberator

Franz Čižek knew this; and his sympathy (which is the desire to understand) enabled him to give out to the educational world a new version of childhood. Children work intuitively through such inspired mediators. Although Čižek's ideas have been made available to every educator, no broadcasting of mere information and use of another's methods can replace the personality of the innovator who uses, not systems from the adult side of life, but creative intuition from the viewpoint of the child. Such an innovator uses the strength of the child, in a sort of spiritual *jiu-jitsu*.

It is amazing what power a name will continue to hold. 'Čižek' to-day is a synonym for inspired guidance; but it is also a catchword for the uninformed. The academic mind mistrusts it because it is modern, and linked with other anathemas like Cézanne, Futurism or Cubism. But the educator who mistrusts, and only partly accepts under popular pressure, the principle of creative guidance in child education, is almost as much of a menace as the old-fashioned 'drawing-master' of a generation ago. Čižek and his followers in Austria point the way: they do not lay down rules to follow.

### Experiment in the New World

It is, therefore, an interesting thing to show how a new country, young in tradition, unversed in European experience, with a varied environment, and a history of pioneering and physical hardship connected with establishment on new soil, has turned the youthful energy and resourcefulness of children to creative achievement. Canada is the newest among the nations to essay experimental work in child education in Art: perhaps it is unique in the fact that a public Art Gallery has been made the radiating centre of this experiment.

Education in Art has so long been confined, actually and mentally, to the Art School, that it comes as a surprise to many to know that a

public institution, used for the display of pictures and sculpture, can be turned into a live educational centre in which children act as enjoying and rational human beings, creating forms of interest as vital in their way as any of the pictures on the walls.

About two years ago, the Art Gallery of Toronto sent out word to schools that if any children would like to come to the Art Gallery to draw, there would be informal classes for them. To-day there are more than six hundred children enrolled in these classes, which meet every Saturday morning.

It would take too long to tell all the story. Briefly: any child from eight to thirteen years of age, who wants to draw, may join the Art Gallery of Toronto classes. The children are divided into groups; a varied programme is placed before them, and they may select what they wish to do. Simple problems relating to their everyday experience and to the development of creative and imaginative powers are offered to them. Mural decorations, lino cuts, self-portraits, posters, soap sculpture and modelling, drawing from life, and story illustration, are all part of their creative experience.

### Breaking the Shackles

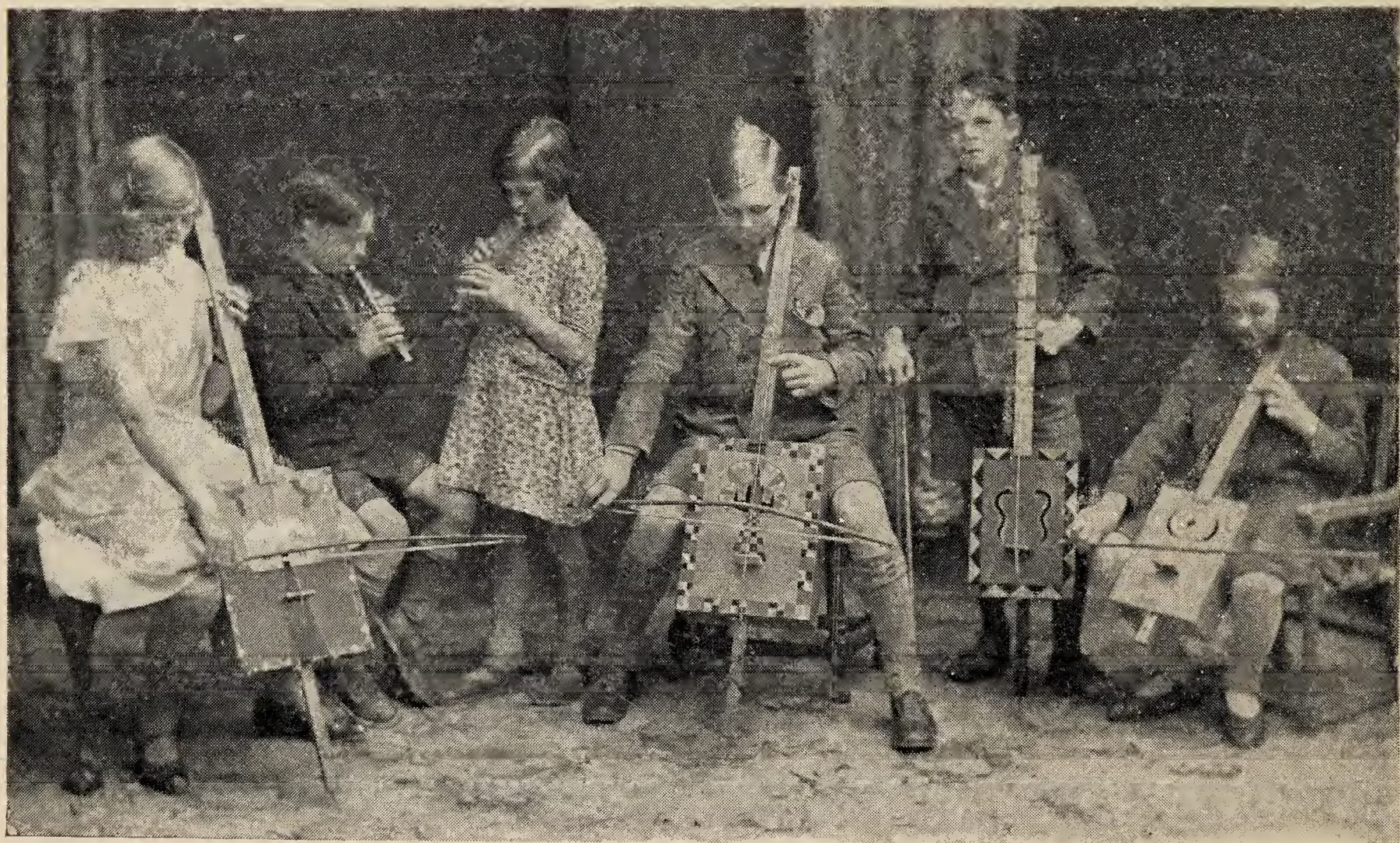
It has been proved beyond doubt that children, whether they are Jewish, Polish, or Austrian, are the same in creative attitudes, and that Canadian children whose forebears only a generation or two ago were on the land—those of Anglo-Saxon origin, McAlisters, Murphys, Browns, Smiths, and Jones—share equally in the vivid experience of producing in line and colour the creations of their childish imagination.

After a week of steady daily routine in their schools, where the child is fitted with the shackles of conventional education in art, it is difficult to make children realize that they have freedom on this one day to create for themselves, and need not follow the knowledge of the teacher in class. Although these children are supposedly 'talented'—that is, they have interest in art—they rarely have a chance to prove how desirous they are to put down, first-hand, what *they* think about the world in which they live. Here in the Art Gallery of Toronto they are given that opportunity.





*Making and Decorating Instruments*



*A Children's Orchestra*



A wealth of subject matter, an interesting building, unlimited supply of the best materials, entertainment, recreation, and sympathetic helpers, entice from the children a wealth of ideas and a tremendous energy in the execution of them. The main purpose of the instruction—if such it can be called—is to produce an environment or atmosphere in which children can work. The weight of precedent and theory is lifted, and the child nature shines through.

As a science, child psychology is unknown to us. We learn from the children how to treat them: we feed them; their growth and future are not our concern.

Children, like artists, have little interest in their work once it is accomplished, and progress is judged by interest in the doing rather than by skill and results.

#### The Child is All Artist

The result of this activity is, of course, the interest of the public—a sort of mild wonder at the ability of children. But progress in child education in Art is such that this wonder has ceased with those who know that the child is all artist, and that it is quite natural for him

to do what he wishes so much to do. When we cease to look upon creative children as something unique, we shall all stop wondering, and begin instead to lament the loss so many of them suffer by the inevitable herd instinct of regimented education. The personal estimates of life by children as seen in their drawings and designs, are an inspiration to sympathetic and understanding grown-ups, and an everlasting reproach to the possessive creeds of the world of professional and commercial practice.

The classes at the Art Gallery of Toronto for children who wish to draw, are only part of the whole plan. Every day many classes visit the gallery, each class staying for an hour of art appreciation with the pictures and sculpture on exhibition. The American plan of changing exhibitions very frequently and using the Art Gallery as a public show place has been adopted here in Toronto. Thus the children are able to come into touch with the expression and interpretation of life of artists from all over the world. They are encouraged to express their own reactions and opinions, and are guided into sympathetic ways of looking at life through the eyes of artists.

## Pipe-Making and the Arts

MARGARET JAMES

WHEREVER a natural hollow tube grows in the forests of the world, it may be turned by the primitive people into music. When it is carved aright, a flute of bamboo gives a sweet call: the Indian shepherd knows how to make and to use it. The Sicilian goatherd pipes on the mountains, the Armenian peasant plays his tune.

It is six years since the goatherd's pipe from Sicily became a model for children in England, and London boys first found in pipe-making a game of discovery. In the awakening of the first notes we forgot to ponder upon educational significance. We stood on the threshold of discovery, doing something wholly delightful. Its meaning in education unfolded slowly when we found that pipemaking was not an isolated subject in school life, but an alliance of handicraft, design and music in which each process was a magic entrance to the understanding of the arts.

Pipe making and playing are inseparable because musical training begins in the handicraft lesson. When the maker has shaped the mouth-piece of his tube, delicately and with the concentration required of every good craftsman, a note comes. Each time, this is a renewed adventure and a surprise. Yet notes vary in quality. We must allow for the magical luck of nature which will sometimes give perfection and sometimes not, according to the fibre and sensitiveness of the pole. Even so, the maker is in the main responsible for the tone of his instrument. Only by means of perfect craftsmanship can he achieve his end; a pipe that responds sweetly and obediently to his breathing, a note that feels and sounds just right. He learns to appreciate good tone through the delightful sensation of blowing it.

When the note of the open tube, fitted with its cork, is perfected in tone, the piper compares



its pitch with the keynote of his orchestra. The key of a pipe is determined by the length of its tube. A little piece of bamboo speaks in a high voice, a long piece in a low one. The maker cuts fractions from the base of his pipe, shortening it until its length will give the desired keynote, then he is ready to carve a scale.

The position of all seven holes is marked by a rule of measurement that has been discovered to be practicable; then a little hole is pierced on the first mark, which will give the second note when it is opened to the right size. Once more Nature appears, and this time she trains the ear by her interference. The forest bamboo, untouched by machinery, varies in its bore, its curve and thickness. We cannot, therefore, give the maker an accurate measurement for the size of each hole, which will vary every time a pipe is made. The scale must be tuned by ear. A note is raised by enlarging the hole which represents it; so much we know. The craftsman opens it warily, blows the rising tone, decides that it is still flat and bores again. When the note sounds perfectly in tune, the hole is large enough and is finished. Thus the scale becomes alive and grows under its maker's hands, each note rising in turn to its all-important place and resting there, complete. The pipe maker trains his ear and acquires an acute pitch sense.

When the first three notes have been perfected the craftsman definitely becomes a musician and learns to control his breathing and his fingers to create a musical phrase. The breathing must be effortless and gentle, each note distinct, yet smoothly enunciated, and the sounds are read from numbers which are later changed into notes. They are written on five lines and, from the very first, the piper learns to place his scale correctly on the staff and to interpret the musical symbols and values as they appear. With each new step of the scale, he may learn another phrase or little tune and he may invent, write and play others of the same kind. Rhythmic movement, stepping and dancing may emphasize the character of all his pipe

music and will encourage him to improvise his own melodies. Already, we have united hand-work with rhythmic movement and with music.

The completed pipe is a treasure. Its seven holes constitute ten notes, with all the semi-tones between them. The maker can change key. Reading from staff notation, he climbs to the sub-dominant and there plays a new scale, together with new melodies; then he drops to the relative minor. New pipes are made, new keys mastered and the voices of treble, alto and bass are blended in round and madrigal. The sound of home-made pipes, played in parts, is soft and of an unexpected beauty. It is not a passionate volume or a violent explosion of sound. It is delicate and subtle, with a faery quality of tone and expression, and it lends itself to interpretation by phrasing and control of breathing.

In an orchestra of sixty pupils, the individual loses his pipe unless he can recognize it by some mark of his own. This mark is supplied by decoration. In the art lesson the piper chooses a gay colour and a pattern all his own and gleefully designs his own musical instrument. This improves the tone of a bamboo pipe, preserves the wood and gives delight to the possessor. It also correlates music with the art lesson in such an intimate way that the child artist knows his drawing to be related to music and the young musician finds his music-making incomplete without drawing and colour. In music, design, craftsmanship or rhythmic movement, keenness and natural talent for one subject will open the way to all the rest. Singing blends with pipes in harmony to make still more beautiful music, puppetry achieves an ideal orchestra, hymns a new interpretation. For folk-dancing there is an accompaniment which educates the player in rhythm and the dancer in music.

Meanwhile, the piper is enjoying his adventure, carving, painting, blowing, intent upon no educational theory, but upon the delight of execution.



# Trends in Individual Work—III

A. J. LYNCH

IN my last article I tried to show how, in all sorts of ways, individual work could be carried out in the classroom, and promised to describe how it had been carried on for twelve years in one particular school.

## Subjects Suitable for Individual Work

I must, however, mention one or two things before I proceed with my main topic. The first is that, as typewritten or printed assignments were used, we did not cover the whole school with the experiment, only the pupils, about 250 of them, from 9½–10. Then, as the school was an elementary one, where the pupils left at 14, this arrangement meant that we could frame a four-years' course in all the subjects that were treated in this way. It must be pointed out that there are some subjects that cannot be treated on an individual basis. For example, no one would try to individualize choral singing or massed drill. Other subjects, such as mental arithmetic and dictation, are perhaps best taken in groups rather than individually. The subjects we took individually were formal English, i.e. language and composition, English Literature, Arithmetic, History, Geography, and Drawing. For the simplification of the time-table, Science was put with Drawing.

I do not know whether one must defend what appears to be a separation of formal English from Literature. My only defence is my own experience. In my early years, I was successfully made to hate some of the fine passages in the literature of my own tongue because I was constantly asked to analyze and parse them—a process in which I never excelled. What I now feel is that literature should be a medium of pleasure and not of boredom.

## The Time-table

We had twenty hours per week to devote to the subjects named above, so we allocated those hours to the subjects in what we thought to be the order of their importance and value. In this way, English had five hours and literature five. Having done this, we asked ourselves: how much of the time allocated could be given to the pupil

for private study purposes, and how much should be retained by the teacher for his own purposes? This division varied with each subject. I can best illustrate my point by reference to two subjects, viz. drawing and foreign languages. Drawing, properly conceived, should be very largely a matter of creative self-expression. Most of the time, therefore, should be the pupils'. On the other hand, if a foreign language is being taught by the Direct Method, most of the time must surely be the teacher's.

All these points were carefully considered and settled. In the end, the school time-table disclosed the fact that slightly more than half the time went to the pupil for private study, and slightly less than half went to the teacher. These divisions of time are not arbitrary. They fitted my own school, but they might not fit any other. Indeed, the incidence of the practice of individual work would, as it should, vary from school to school; no two schools will be alike in the matter. That is why it is so difficult, if not entirely impossible, to answer the question of those who, seeing a successful experiment in one school, ask how many schools practise the same method. This is a very common question with regard to the Dalton Plan. If, however, the question were put in this way: how many schools are influenced by the Dalton Plan, the answer leaps to the tongue at once. It is: almost every school in the land, for individual work, which forms so large a part of the Dalton Plan, is practised in some degree almost universally.

It is not possible in this short article to go into the minutiae of technique with regard to individual work.\*

## Group Work

One may, perhaps, at this stage, say that a school run on these lines is not very far removed from what are to-day known as New Curriculum schools and Activity schools. The essential elements in these schools are that the curriculum should be conceived in a new light, and that

\* I would refer anyone, wishing to know more about them, to my book; *Individual Work and the Dalton Plan*. (Philip.)



activity for creative self-expression should occupy some part, if not the whole, of the free time. A school conducted on the lines set out above could be made, if it did not already do so to satisfy the requirements of the New Curriculum and Activity schools. I have seen this repeatedly in the geography room of my old school where, either each boy made a contour map in plaster, or the whole group together engaged in the process. I have seen it in the literature room, where suitable numbers of pupils presented a play or part of a play, and

even wrote one. I have seen it also in the history room where by co-operative effort, an historical model was produced. The accompanying picture of a model of a Saxon village was produced in this way recently in the school I knew so well.

If, in addition, the assignment work be based on new conceptions of subject matter, the conditions of the New Curriculum and the Activity schools are well on the way to fulfilment. I have often examined the time-tables of the newer schools and find that my own was not very dissimilar. In the early days of experimentation

Villeins One-Room Dwellings—  
Log Huts, Thatched Roofs

Forest

Lord's House  
moated with  
Drawbridge —

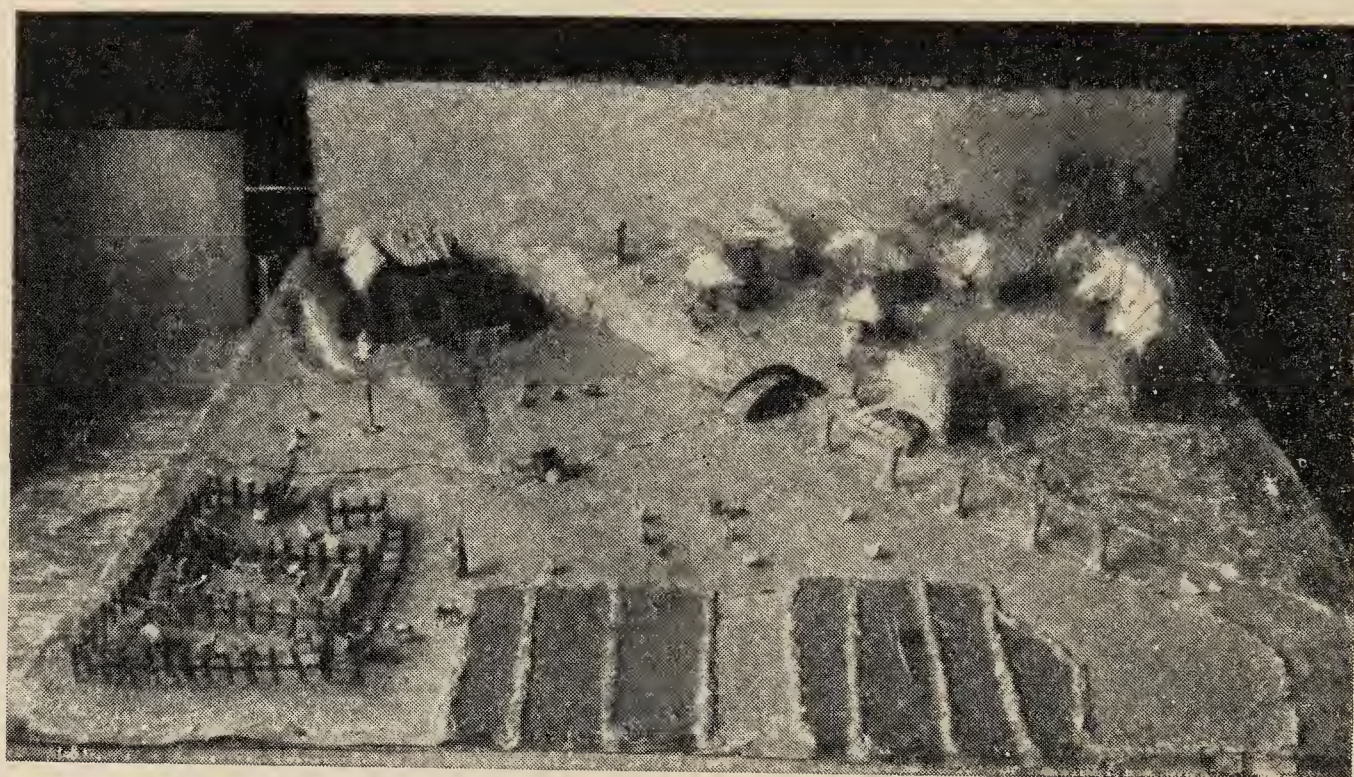
Road —

Cattle  
Pens —

— Church

— Mill  
(Stone and  
Tile)

— River



Cultivated Fields showing Villeins Strips

Meadowland  
by River

### PARTICULARS OF CONSTRUCTION

Work performed by boys of Standard IV (9 years of age) at West Green School under direction of Mr. D. Jordan, B.Sc.(Econ.). In the main the work was done at home, the boys working out their own ideas from a large picture published in 'Pictorial Education'. The houses are made from rough pieces of wood, the only tools used being a penknife—the houses are thatched with straw. The Lord's House has a series of rafters supporting the thatch, made from match sticks; the sides being made of stout cardboard painted to resemble stone. The tiled roof on the mill is made from small squares of cardboard, and the water wheel from cigarette pictures.

The model, which is 4 foot square, is mounted on a piece of three-ply wood, and the fields are made from paper pulp coloured with poster paint. The forest trees are made from twigs and pieces of bath loofah, and the pollard willows along the river from plasticine and twigs.



with individual work it was sometimes suggested that time-tables should be abolished. I would not recommend their abolition. I believe it would lead to disaster in any school. At the same time, the time-table should not be a rigid and formidable thing; it should be the servant of the school and not an inexorable master.

### Planning the Dalton Plan

The way in which I worked out my ideas was very largely through the method of organization known as the Dalton Plan. There were subject-rooms, with one teacher in each room responsible for the subject. It will be seen that this arrangement is, in principle, exactly the same as that I described last month in writing of subject-blocks in classrooms. But with this difference. Whereas in the classroom, one teacher is responsible for all subjects, in the subject-room he is responsible for one subject only. It is the teacher's business to hold himself in readiness to assist the child in every way, either by answering his questions, or by giving advice. That is to say, teaching when it becomes necessary to teach. If he has any spare time, he spends it in marking, often with the pupil by his side, some of the exercises.

Complete freedom is allowed the pupil to change his room (that is, his subject) if he so desires. This, to the old-fashioned teacher, may sound a little revolutionary. But, in actual practice, I found that removal from one room to another took place only when a child was fatigued, or when he had completed his task.

### Difficulties—Real and Imaginary

I have many times been asked what would happen if the room were crowded, and a child couldn't get in. Well, he couldn't—and that's all there is to it. The truth is, as in so many other walks of life, things seemed to average out pretty evenly and apprehensions in this matter became entirely groundless.

Real difficulties, however, might arise from quite other things. One is, when a teacher insists on a pupil spending daily in his room exactly the amount of time allocated to the subject. For example, if the boy were allowed five hours per week for a subject, and the teacher insisted that the child spend an hour a day with him, it might

create an awkward situation both for the teacher and the child. For the teacher, because his marking would pile up enormously; to the child because his opportunities for visiting other rooms would become severely limited. Another difficulty arises when a teacher, for quite different reasons, bars his room to a pupil. If the room is devoted to a subject which happens to be the only one the pupil has in hand, the situation is again an awkward one. One could go on writing of all sorts of difficulties which might crop up in the course of time. But the main thing is that the principles of the newer education are applied in such a way as to bring the greatest good to the pupil. It is the difficulties, and their solution, that constitute the main test of the really live teacher.

### The Keeping of Records

I have already pointed out that we used assignments of work, and last month, showed how these could be drawn up. The content of these assignments is a crucial matter, and their construction will have much to do with making or marring interest. Another essential thing, in the carrying out of successful individual work, is to keep records. These need not be elaborate, but they should be purposeful. We used three types of records—the child's, the teacher's, and the head-teacher's. The last named is necessary if the head-teacher wishes to know the progress, or otherwise, of his school; the teacher's is necessary because he wants to know the progress of the boys, from all age-groups, who come under his care for his subject. The child's record is necessary so that he himself may know how he stands.

It used to be said that individual work was a good thing for bright boys; the child's record showed me that it was a good thing for those less bright. Our pupils were generally given a month's work to do in each of six subjects. It was very rare to find a boy who could not do something at some of the subjects without assistance. But there were often one or two subjects where assistance was very necessary. As well as discovering where help was needed most, the teacher often discovered where a boy could really shine.

It was this experience that made me modify my views as to the backward child. When I now



hear a child described as backward, I always say: Backward in what? For I know many children who are good at drawing who could not master the simple rules of grammar, and many others who, though duffers at arithmetic, could yet produce good essays. In my later years, I sometimes recall the hours I was compelled, as a child, to sit on a piano-stool because it was thought by fond parents that if I was not a musician, I ought to be. I have very great sympathy with the child who is not musically-minded or mathematically-minded, and very often envy those who are. I am not suggesting that we should, or could, do without music or mathematics, but I do plead for a facing-up to realities. The child's record helps us to do this.

### Correcting Written Work

One of the greatest drawbacks to the larger support among teachers of individual work is the often inordinate amount of written work the child produces. Rather than a drawback it ought to be a virtue. But it does create a very difficult problem in school administration. With all my leaning to the side of modern ways of teaching, I am old-fashioned in this. I feel that no child should be asked to produce genuine work that we are not prepared to look at. It is unjust to the child, and might be tragic. I have known many cases of bitter disappointment on the part of children owing to this kind of thing.

But should this demand for increased marking put experimentation entirely out of court? I think not. There are ways of dealing with the

trouble. If assignments are too full, they can be cut down, or the amount of time devoted to written work can be lessened, and the surplus time used for other purposes. It might also be possible to allocate additional time to the teacher for marking purposes. In any case, though marking is a difficulty, it is not an insuperable one, and no one need feel hopeless about it.

### Individual Work means Work

Apart, however, from such weaknesses as I have named, the advantages of any scheme of individual work far outweigh the disadvantages. The new spirit created, the new enthusiasms engendered, the new attitude adopted, all go to make the school a centre of life and activity.

I do not, as a rule, place too much reliance on replies which children give when they are asked to say whether they like or dislike innovations that their school may make. They are so apt to say the thing they think you want them to say. The following, however, was written by a boy who had spent two years on individual work, and had known quite well the old class method. He was asked to say what he thought were the advantages and disadvantages of the new method as compared with the old. Said he: 'I much prefer the old method because you don't have to work while they talk to you about things you don't understand'. There is much more in that than meets the eye. It probably contains the greatest justification of the new method.

## A New Centre of Educational Societies

### 29, TAVISTOCK SQUARE

HAVING GATHERED OURSELVES UNDER ONE ROOF FROM different corners of Bloomsbury, the New Education Fellowship, the Nursery School Association, the Home and School Council, the Froebel Society and the *New Era* decided to hold a House Warming. We wanted to show our many friends our new quarters at 29, Tavistock Square, and we wanted to try out our new-found solidarity as a group whose sole object is to give children a better and happier preparation for life, so that they may grow up to found a better and happier society.

It must not be thought that by sharing these headquarters we are in any way merging our individuality or lessening our efforts along specialized lines. Co-

operation is all the easier because, though our aim is one, our fields of activity are distinct.

The House Warming was held on three successive days, November 3rd, 4th and 5th, and was attended by more than 450 people. On each day short informal speeches were given by one or two of our distinguished guests.



ON THURSDAY, THE 3RD, MISS ISHBEL MACDONALD, who, with Lady Allen of Hurtwood, also acted as hostess, urged the claims of both the Nursery School Association and the Home and School Council. The



former, said Miss MacDonald, is just beyond the pioneer stage. It has demonstrated the importance of its work but is still struggling for *practical* recognition, i.e. funds with which to continue and extend its very valuable services.

The Home and School Council is engaged upon establishing better relationships between home and school. This is valuable work, for it has been proved that most maladjustments are brought about by wrong handling of the child by adults, and if parents and teachers—the two groups of adults most intimately responsible for the child—can realize *together* the first principles of child psychology, this will help to ensure mental health to the coming generation.



SIR PERCY NUNN, DIRECTOR OF THE INSTITUTE OF Education, said: 'I want to say to my fellow-members something which has been on my mind for some time. This is the first opportunity I have had. There was a time when I resisted Mrs. Ensor's efforts to gain my wholehearted co-operation in the New Education Fellowship. I felt that it was perhaps a superfluous thing. What converted me was the discovery that the New Education Fellowship was able to bring together not only educational people in this country, but educational people from all over the world. It has only to announce that an international congress will be held at Locarno or Elsinore or Nice, and people right away across the ocean begin to book berths and steamer passages, and there is a great convergence from all over the world upon the place where the conference is to be held.

'The conferences themselves are very serious things. As far as Continental peoples are concerned, they are taken seriously by people who really count in their educational systems. Ministers of Education think it worth while to spend a short time at the Conference. They even think it worth while to help the conference on the financial side.

'When one sees a movement of this kind reaching such extraordinary proportions, one feels that it is a movement we ought to take seriously in this country too. When one attends these conferences, one feels that the English representation there is not worthy of English education in the sense that the representations of France and Germany are worthy of the educational systems of those countries.

'The N.E.F. does not represent the extreme Left or the extreme Right in English education. It has quite rightly taken a very catholic attitude. It only wishes to draw together people who are looking forward. That is the domestic function of the N.E.F.—to be a means of encouragement to all who are working, some in isolation and others in fairly easy and permanent circumstances, for the advancement of education. But more important than its domestic work is its function as a means of bringing together in conference those persons who are interested in education from all parts of the world; and I repeat that the reason for feeling satisfaction on the opening of this new building, which very admirably suits its

purpose, is the belief that this work may be carried forward still further.'



THE CHAIR WAS TAKEN ON THIS FIRST DAY BY DR. Crowley, Chief Medical Officer of Health to the Board of Education, and Mr. E. Salter Davies, Director of Education for Kent.

The latter referred to the Englishman's conservative fear of anything that is labelled new. 'We are rather prone to think that anything that bears such an adjective must be patronized by people who are extreme in one way or another. If any were to say that about the New Education Fellowship, I should retort: "Well, look at us! We are the very embodiment of sound commonsense. We aim at bringing together those people who believe in progress in education, and those who believe in the development of the individual through creative self-expression."'



ON THE SECOND DAY, FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 4TH, THE Chair was taken by Mr. A. J. Lynch, J.P., ex-Headmaster of West Green School, and addresses were given by Mrs. Wintringham, J.P., and Dr. H. Crichton-Miller, Director of the Institute of Medical Psychology.

Mrs. Wintringham quoted the Nursery School as an admirable example of preventive work, but one which the authorities have not seen fit to support as it deserves. Dr. Crichton-Miller followed. He asserted that the work of the Nursery School is 'a great work and a great mission . . . but the child's normal educators are its parents. . . . In the work of the Home and School Council you see the idea of taking the sharp edge of institutionalization off the school and giving back to the home something of the responsibility which it has resigned far too readily.'



ON SATURDAY MORNING, NOVEMBER 5TH, DR. C. W. Kimmins, formerly Inspector of Schools, L.C.C., took the Chair, and Mrs. Susan Isaacs, Dr. J. A. Hadfield and Mr. Li Yu Ying spoke.

Mrs. Isaacs said that, by facilitating the pooling of experience the coming together of these societies at 29, Tavistock Square is 'an event in the progress of educational thought'. She welcomed the scientific work being undertaken by the New Education Fellowship in its International Commissions and particularly that of its Commission on Psychology and Education, which is engaged in the task of popularizing psychological knowledge. By failing to make their findings easily intelligible, psychologists have tended to frighten parents into mistrusting their ability to bring up children. A knowledge of child psychology should educate the parent in *perception*, and should make him aware of what to look for in the course of the normal development of his children. Mrs. Isaacs referred to *Parents and Children*\* as an

\* *Parents and Children* is a supplement to *The New Era*. Price 2d. per month.



experiment in making technical psychological material available to parents.



DR. HADFIELD URGED THAT THE SUREST GUIDE TO THE proper handling of children is 'intuition that is guided and determined by scientific knowledge'. For neither alone is enough. He next stated that 'the character development and the mental health of the child are far more important than intellectual development, particularly in the first five or six years of life', and that 'mental health depends upon giving the fullest opportunity to the child at every

phase of development. . . . We are learning more and more that the healthy child is the child who has an opportunity for the outlet of its instinctive forces and tendencies.'

Mr. Li Yu Ying, of the Association of International Co-operation, Peking, spoke of the important rôle of the new education in China. He said that he was unavoidably prevented from attending the Nice Conference, but that he had sent his own representative to the Conference. He was anxious to co-operate in forming a Chinese section of the Fellowship and wished his bureau to be closely linked with the bureaux of the Fellowship.

Among those who accepted invitations to the House-Warming were:—

#### BOARD OF EDUCATION

Dr. Ralph Crowley, *Senior Medical Officer*; Mr. E. D. Marris, *Secretary to the Departmental Committee on Private Schools*; Sir Henry Richards, *Chief Inspector*; Mr. S. H. Wood, *Director of the Office of Special Inquiries and Reports*.

#### DIRECTORS OF EDUCATION

Mr. J. Compton, *Barking*; Mr. J. E. Cuthbertson, *Hendon*; Mr. E. Salter Davies, *Kent*; Mr. F. Evans, *Erith*; Mr. Henry Morris, *Cambridgeshire*; Mr. C. F. Mott, *Liverpool*; Mr. W. H. Perkins, *Warwickshire*; Mr. S. Rivers-Smith, *Tanganyika*; Dr. C. F. Strong, *Tottenham*.

#### L.C.C.

Dr. P. B. Ballard, *Formerly Inspector of Schools*; Mr. F. H. Spencer, *Chief Inspector*.

#### UNIVERSITIES

Professor Cyril Burt, *University of London*; Professor Winifred Cullis, C.B.E., *University of London*; Sir Frank Heath, *Universities Bureau of the British Empire*; Dr. Pryn's Hopkins, *University of London*; Professor Sir Percy Nunn, *University of London*.

#### TRAINING COLLEGES

Miss E. T. Bazeley, *Bishop Otter College*; Mr. A. E. Dean, *Goldsmiths' College*; Professor H. R. Hamley, *Institute of Education*; Miss de Lissa, *Gipsy Hill Training College*.

#### ASSOCIATIONS

Miss Ishbel MacDonald, *President, Home and School Council*; Mr. J. D. Dunkerley, *Secretary, Assistant Masters' Association and the 'Joint Four'*; Mrs. H. J. Eveleigh, *President, Nursery School Association*; Mr. G. S. M. Ellis, *Secretary, Education Committees, N.U.T.*; Hon. Mrs. Franklin, *President, P.N.E.U.*; Dr. J. C. Maxwell Garnett, C.B.E., *Secretary, League of Nations Unions*; Mr. and Mrs. Bertram Hawker, *National Union of Students*; Mr. Edmond Holmes, *New Ideals in Education*; Dr. A. Macrae, *Institute of Industrial Psychology*; Mr. R. Metcalf, *Chairman, Assistant Masters' Association*; Mr. C. C. Montefiore, *President, Froebel Society*; Mr. Charles Pearce, *President, London Teachers' Association*; Mr. Roger Raven, *New Ideals in Education*; Miss Belle Rennie, *Dalton Association*; Miss G. A. Richards, *President, Assistant Mistresses Association*; Mr. Frank Roscoe, *Secretary, Royal Society of Teachers*; Dr. Percival Sharp, *Secretary, Association of Education Committees*; Miss M. D. Spender, *President, London Head Teachers' Association*; Mr. T. C. Tibbey, *National Association of Head Teachers*; Mrs. Gordon Wilson, *Secretary, Association of Assistant Mistresses*.

#### HEADMASTERS AND HEADMISTRESSES

Mr. T. F. Coade, *Bryanston*; Mr. W. B. Curry, *Dartington Hall*; Rev. Cecil Grant, *St. George's*; Mr. F. C. Happold, *Bishop Wordsworth's*; Mr. Lyn Harris, *St. Christopher*; Mrs. E. Hickson, *Oldfeld*; Mr. B. A. Howard, *Addey and Stanhope*; Mr. Guy Kendall, *University College School*; Miss Isabel King, *Greater Felcourt*; Mr. H. Raymond King, *Miss Margaret Lee, Wychwood*; Mr. A. J. Lynch, *formerly West Green School*; Mr. A. S. Neill, *Summerhill*; Dr. Cyril Norwood, *Harrow*; Mr. G. W. Olive, *Dauntsey's*; Mr. H. Rawson, *The Grange*; Mr. Paul Roberts, *Frensham Heights*; Mr. A. de Selincourt, *Clayesmore*.

#### OTHER DISTINGUISHED GUESTS

The Rt. Hon. Lord Eustace Percy, P.C., The Rt. Rev. the Lord Bishop of Liverpool, Lord and Lady Allen of Hurtwood, Dame Adelaide Mary Anderson, Dame Henrietta Barnett, C.B.E., Miss Vera Brittain, Mrs. George Cadbury, Dr. Sloan Chesser, Sir Edward and Lady Crowe, Professor J. H. Driberg, Dr. J. C. Flugel, Sir Benjamin S. Gott, Dr. J. A. Hadfield, M.B., Sir Philip and Lady Hartog, Sir Alexander and Lady Harris, Commander Stephen King-Hall, Mrs. Susan Isaacs, Dr. C. W. Kimmins, Miss Jean Sterling Mackinlay, Dr. J. J. Mallon, J.P., Professor Emile Marcault, Dr. H. Crichton-Miller, M.D., Dr. W. Moodie, M.D., Lady Morant, Lady Muriel Paget, Dr. E. A. Hamilton-Pearson, Mr. C. H. B. Quennell, Viscountess Rhondda, Mrs. M. Wintringham, J.P.



# International Notes

## FELLOWSHIP NEWS

THE New Education Fellowship is arranging to have an open afternoon for members every Friday at 29, Tavistock Square from 4.30 p.m. to 6, during which time tea will be served. Members and their friends are cordially invited. From time to time distinguished visitors from home and abroad will be present to meet members and give short talks. In this way it is hoped to provide an opportunity for members to meet one another informally and to hear of interesting work that is being done in this and other countries. (Tea—1s. per person.)



## N.E.F.'s Lecture at Conference of Educational Associations

Lord Allen of Hurtwood will give the Fellowship's address on Thursday, January 5th, 1933, at 5 p.m., at University College, Gower Street, London, during the Conference of Educational Associations. Mr. E. Salter Davies will take the Chair. A further notice will be sent to all members of the Fellowship.



## The American Section of the N.E.F.

As the result of meetings of representatives of the Progressive Education Association and of the New Education Fellowship held at the Nice Conference in August, the P.E.A. became, in October, the American Section of the Fellowship.



**Professor Cizek's Work in Vienna** will be the subject of lectures to be given in England by Dr. W. Viola in the spring under the auspices of the New Education Fellowship. New lantern slides of some of the latest work of Prof. Cizek's pupils will be shown. It is felt that Prof. Cizek's ideas have been misunderstood by some people in England, and we welcome the opportunity of a clear exposition from one who has been for many years in close touch with this world-famous artist and teacher.

Organizations wishing to book Dr. Viola for lectures should apply to the New Education Fellowship, 29, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.



A valuable piece of publicity work has been done for the *New Era* by a reader from Rochdale, who has recently sent out 700 copies of the magazine to all those in Rochdale interested in the child of pre-school age. We very much appreciate help of this kind and should be only too glad if other readers could follow this example!

## OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST

### England

The Home and School Council wishes to announce that, owing to the outstanding success of the course of Lectures and Study Group Discussions on 'Advances in Understanding the Child' which has been going on this autumn, a further course is being planned to begin in January. Further particulars may be obtained from the Organizing Secretary, Home and School Council, 29, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.



### Exhibition of Children's Books

An exhibition of children's books was organized by the National Book Council and held at the Victoria and Albert Museum, London, during November. The object of the exhibition was to show the advances made in children's books from the earliest obtainable examples up to the present time. The best fifty representative books since 1918 from various British publishing houses were displayed. These were grouped suitably for children of different ages.

In comparing the modern books with the old, one felt that, great as is the improvement in the variety and presentation of those for older children, the same cannot, generally speaking, be said of those for very young children, which are largely too sophisticated and do not provide sufficient stimulus to the imagination. The illustrations of modern books are mostly superior as regards execution, but lack that simplicity and directness which make such an immediate appeal to the young mind.

Besides this excellent display of the publisher's art, a large number of old and rare exhibits of early children's books was on view.



### The Pipers' Guild

In view of the article on Pipes by Miss Margaret James in this issue, we would draw attention to the Pipers' Guild, which aims at furthering the threefold craft of making, decorating, playing, each man his own instrument. The Guild believes that over-specialization and machinery have combined to exclude man from taking his rightful, active share in the arts and crafts. Handicraft, design and music are interdependent in Guild classes. The instruments are not intended to be bought or sold. Each member must make his own, decorate and play it. The membership subscription is at present five shillings per annum. Further particulars may be obtained from the Vice-President and Director, Miss Margaret James, Edgworth Rectory, Stroud, Glos.



### Italy

An interesting experiment in improving agricultural practice through children has been successfully



going on for two years at San Colombano al Lambro in Italy. A course is being given to 40 boys of 12 to 15 years of age, the sons of vine-growing peasants, in the tending of vineyards and in horticulture and fruit growing. Apart from lessons in the class-room they have a vineyard and a big field in which they learn to apply the theoretical knowledge gained. The children do all the work on a rational plan and each boy is responsible for his particular task. These boys will influence their families and, as they grow up, will spread improved agricultural and viticultural practice throughout the countryside.



### U.S.A.

After a long preparation covering the last nine years, Bennington College, Vermont, has been opened as a progressive college for women. The new college will maintain a four years' course leading to the A.B. degree, with standards at least equal to those of the best American colleges for women, but the wide choice of curriculum and the scope given for individual work are free from all academicism and are in line with the best tenets of progressive education. Introductory courses in several fields of study have been organized so that students may explore many avenues before settling down to any specialized course. Prospectus may be had on application to Bennington College Publications, Bennington, Vermont.



### NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION

One of the recent regrets of the Nursery School Association is that Miss Grace Owen, O.B.E., M.Ed., has been obliged, owing to ill-health, to relinquish the full control of the Association which she has conducted with such conspicuous success for so many years. Though the regret is intense among all those who have co-operated with her, it is a great satisfaction to the Association to know that under the new arrangements Miss Owen will still be available for that advice which she is so eminently qualified to give. Those who are now responsible for the work of the Association are delighted that this contact will still be maintained.

The House Warming functions at these new

offices constituted a remarkable feature in the educational life of London. It is not often that the formal opening of a new centre for education takes place. Miss Ishbel MacDonald in her opening speech regretted that Lady Astor was not able to be present to speak for the Nursery School Association, but it was most fortunate for the Association that Miss MacDonald, in the absence of a chief speaker, repaired the breach admirably herself.

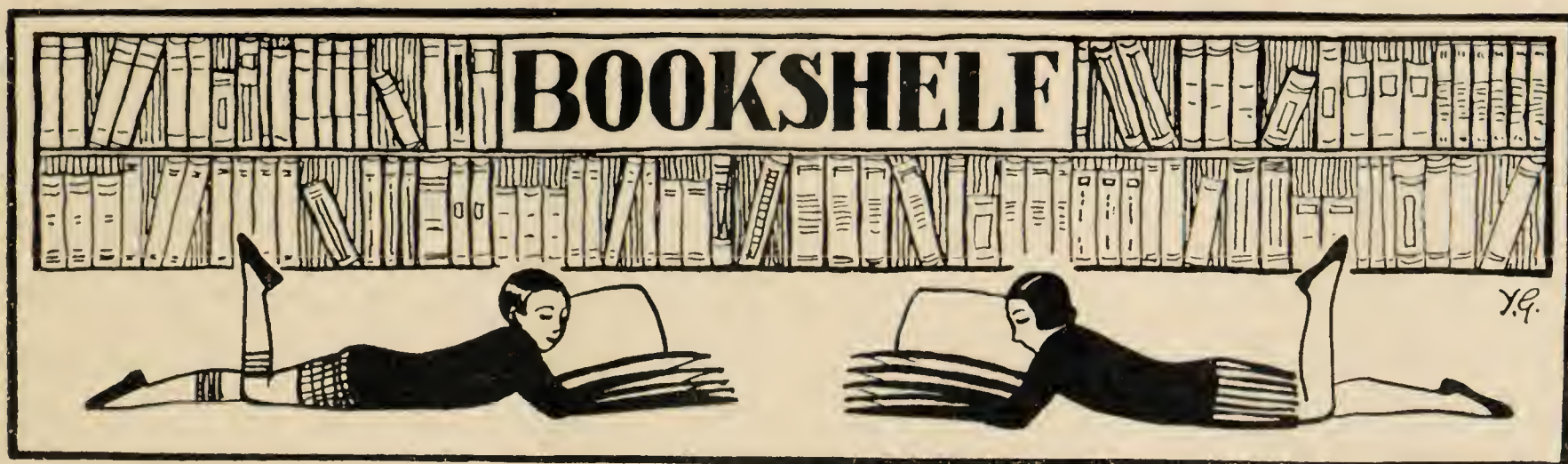
Mrs. Wintringham, on the second day, devoted the whole of her speech to the work of the Association and gave interesting details of the development of nursery school work in both Lincoln and Louth, where unemployed men were giving their services to the movement. Among the very large number of nursery school workers who shared in the opening ceremonies were Mr and Mrs Polson, Mrs. Paul Singer, Mrs. Bruce Glasier, and others. The stall containing Nursery School literature was extremely well patronized.

In last month's Notes, Miss Ryle referred to the fact that the future of the Nursery School movement would, in view of the economies insisted upon at the present moment, have to lie in the direction of voluntary work. This appears to have struck others too, for we are hearing from several quarters of great efforts being made to get nursery schools founded. In Sunderland Mr. W. P. Sawyer, himself an energetic organizer, has persuaded one of his prominent townsmen to subscribe £3,000 towards starting a nursery school; in Rochdale a band of faithful friends is making a very wide appeal for support for and interest in Nursery Schools; and in Balham and Brighton the same thing is taking place. It is cheering to get this news and to feel that such work among children as our Association fosters is not going to be allowed to suffer.

The Annual Meeting of the Nursery School Association will be held at University College, Gower Street, on Friday, January 6th, 1933, when Professor Marcault will give an address on *The Whole Child*. Miss de Lissa will preside. This meeting will begin at 2.30, but at 10.30 in the morning the Annual Meeting for members only will be held at the same place. The latter meeting will include the election of officers and Committees of the Association for the coming year.

A. J. Lynch





**Education and the Social Order.** By *Bertrand Russell* (Allen & Unwin. 7s. 6d.)

This book of Bertrand Russell's, like several others of his, will not be acceptable to those whose standard of a good book is that it says 'just what they always thought'. It would, in fact, be hard to find a reader who would not find himself disagreeing with at least one of the many unorthodox opinions of the author. To me such disagreement is a joy, when the challenging opinion is the balanced view of a modern philosopher like Bertrand Russell. At times, it is true, his statements are too sweeping and he indulges in condemnation at the cost of facts as they are. So where he says (p. 87): 'The British Government still selects its Civil Servants largely for proficiency in the Classics, although a knowledge of French and German would be both more useful and of more cultural value'. If he were to study the choice of examination subjects among successful candidates for the Civil Service in the last few years he would find that the number who chose modern languages equals that of those who chose Classics, which, in view of the important place Classics still hold in school education, shows, if anything, an increased emphasis on modern languages among candidates for the Civil Service. Such statements are too easy.

But on the whole his judgment is fair and balanced, even where his own inclinations are involved. Thus, his opinions on education in Soviet Russia are frankly critical even though on the whole he favours Communism. He recognizes that Bolshevistic education is as much an instrument of class domination, in the hands of the proletariat, as bourgeois education is in capitalist hands, and quotes Pinkevitch as saying that the purpose of education is 'the reconstruction of the world in accordance with the theory of Marx'—a dismal outlook indeed for education!

The number of topics touched on in Russell's stimulating and challenging book is too great and varied to allow of any general discussion. They range from heredity to patriotism, from the family in education to aristocracy and democracy, and touch on almost any modern topic from sex instruction to disarmament. With regard to the latter he makes a statement well worth thinking over in these days when sentimental pacifism is often a greater obstruction to world peace than a frank imperialism. He says (p. 234): 'The establishment of an international authority sufficiently strong to impose its settlement

of disputes on recalcitrant states is, I am convinced the most important reform from an educational as well as from every other point of view.'

The dominant theme of the book, in spite of the almost too great range of subjects, is best given in the following quotation from the last chapter (pp. 246-247):—

'Our world is a mad world. . . . In spite of continually improving technique, we all grow poorer. In spite of being well aware of the horrors of the next war, we continue to cultivate in the young those sentiments which will make it inevitable. In spite of science, we react against the habit of considering problems rationally. In spite of increasing command over nature, most men feel more hopeless and impotent than they have done since the Middle Ages. The source of all this does not lie in the external world, nor does it lie in the purely cognitive part of our nature, since we know more than men ever knew before. It lies in our passions, it lies in our emotional habits, it lies in the sentiments instilled in youth and in the phobias created in infancy. The cure for our problems is to make men sane, and to make men sane they must be educated sanely.'

And he asks, not without cause: 'Is a man to be condemned as immoral and subversive because he wishes to substitute for these elements in the moral education of the present day intelligence, sanity, kindness and a sense of justice?'

Bertrand Russell has been so condemned and will, no doubt, once again be condemned by many whose traditional emotions rebel against his unorthodox views. They, especially, should read him, remembering that an angry reaction against an opinion honestly expressed is ever a sure sign that the speaker has touched us on the quick, that our emotional prejudices are involved, that we are on the defensive for something which we are not capable of defending rationally and dispassionately.

After all, stimulation is preferable to acquiescence.

*Challenging and challengeable thoughts from Russell's last book*

p. 58. 'Those who have been taught from an early age to fear the displeasure of the group as the worst of misfortunes will die on the battlefield, in a war of which they understand nothing, rather than suffer the contempt of fools. The English public schools have carried this system to perfection, and they have



sterilized intelligence by making it cringe before the herd. This is what is called making a boy manly.'

p. 62. 'There should be no enforced respect for grown-ups, who should allow themselves to be called fools whenever children wish to call them so. We cannot prevent children from thinking us fools by merely forbidding them to utter their thoughts. . . .'

p. 110. 'The intrusion of emotion and sentimentality is always the mark of a bad case.'

p. 115. 'So far as I can remember, there is not one word in the Gospels in praise of intelligence.'

p. 136. 'The British flag suggests to a Briton Nelson and Trafalgar, not Shakespeare or Newton or Darwin.'

p. 140. 'History text-books ought to be drawn up by the League of Nations, with an assistant from the United States and another from Soviet Russia.'

p. 152. 'If it were suggested to teachers that they should pay attention to the bowel action of their pupils their snobbery would be outraged.'

p. 194. 'A generation confined within the philosophy of *Das Kapital* may be useful, happy and formidable, but cannot be wise, and cannot know that it is not; intellectually it will be cocksure and shallow.'

p. 206. 'Nationalism is vicious as a principle, and is not to be admired, even in nations fighting for their freedom.'

p. 217. 'Perhaps, when mass psychology has been perfected, there will be no limits to what Governments can make their subjects believe.'

p. 246. 'While our technique demands co-operation of the whole human race as a single producing and consuming unit, our passions and our political beliefs persist in demanding competition.'

J. J. van der Leeuw

**Life and the Public Schools.** *The Rt. Rev. A. A. David, Bishop of Liverpool.* (Alexander Maclehose. 10s.6d.)

To those who imagine that English Public Schools are opposed to educational progress, Dr. David's book will come as somewhat of a surprise. It is the penalty paid by men and institutions who do not trouble to explain that they are often misjudged. Those who are aware of what is actually being done in English Public Schools know that much that is said and written about them is merely ignorant nonsense. They know that, though they have been cautious in their attitude towards and reception of modern educational developments, the Public Schools have been profoundly influenced by these developments.

Dr. David's book will prove of peculiar interest to students of education not only as a picture of the reactions of one who has had wide experience as a Public School headmaster towards modern educational ideas, but also as an indication of the extent to which these ideas are influencing the Public School system.

It is impossible in a short review to do more than indicate the general scope of Dr. David's book. He calls it 'A Prospect' and in it he sets down the conclusions to which his experience as Headmaster,

first of Clifton and afterwards of Rugby, have led him. Among the things he discusses are the extent to which boys may demand freedom for self development, the problem of discipline, training in co-operation and service, the preparation of the schoolmaster for his work, and the teaching of religion. A whole chapter is given to 'Reading, Writing and Thinking' and eight pages to a sympathetic examination of the Dalton Plan. Each topic is discussed with fairness and moderation and with a keen insight into boy nature.

This is a wise book which will do much to correct the erroneous picture of Public School education which is sometimes painted.

F. C. Happold

### **Outline for Boys and Girls and Their Parents.**

*Edited by Naomi Mitchison.* (Heinemann. 8s. 6d.)

The duty of the editor of a book like this is to set a keynote in the selection and arrangement of the subject matter, and to a certain extent influence the style of the whole. To those who are familiar with Mrs. Mitchison's historical novels, the significant *naïveté* of the style, most appropriate in a book intended for children, will be recognized with delight.

It would be difficult to find anything more fascinating or enlightening than the chapters on Physics, Biology and Physiology; and the way that the widely different branches of knowledge, though discussed separately, are shown to be closely related in reality is most valuable.

But while gladly admitting the technical excellence with which the scientific information has been selected, arranged and conveyed, I wish to concentrate on a feature of the work which, from its deep importance in education, and from the attention which has been attracted to it by various letters in the Press, must be of special interest to readers of the *New Era*. This is the complete absence of any account of inspired religion, and therefore of that great factor in human thought and progress, the relations of the individual soul with the deity—probably the greatest of all human 'values', to use the author's term.

For in her 'Editor's Preface' Mrs. Mitchison states her object definitely as 'an attempt to clear up these muddles, and to make the people who will be running things in another twenty years aware of *all the different kinds of knowledge and values*'.

Judged by this standard of its own, the book is a failure, as it is impossible for a child reading it to become aware of the religious practices, ideas or ideals held by any civilized race, and their influence on thought, daily life, architecture, art and literature.

The meagre three pages devoted to religion deal almost exclusively with fear-haunted early man and his anthropomorphic beliefs; nowhere is there any hint of joy in contact with the Divine mind which is religion's truest sanction.

The book is definitely anti-theistic and markedly anti-Christian. The references to religion are tendentious, and the weapons of *suggestio falsi* and *suppressio veri* are freely and skilfully used. It is interesting to note, however, that, although Christ is not mentioned, and Christianity (where referred to) is attacked by



subtle suggestions, comparisons and omissions, in the chapter called 'Problems and Solutions' Mr. Olaf Stapleton, in a laudatory summing-up of unselfish 'high-grade' living, says: 'This has been called the power of loving our neighbours as ourselves.' Perhaps he has forgotten his author?

The book is in three parts: Part I, Science; Part II, Civilization; Part III, Values (which deals exclusively with the Arts). What would be the probable effect on the mind of a child reading Parts II and III of this book? He would remain in extraordinary ignorance not only of religion, but of its effects on the development of the world. As nearly half the illustrations in Mr. Clough Ellis's delightful chapter on Architecture are of churches, temples and cathedrals, he would probably be a good deal puzzled as to the origin and use of these magnificent buildings.

He would learn that a long time ago men were very frightened of almost anything and 'wondered what was going to happen to them after death', and 'so religion grew up'. He would learn that 'our modern knowledge has made nonsense of many old beliefs and aims', among them being belief in personal survival which is 'not what a man ought to desire'.

He is told that 'the God of the Hebrews lived in a box called the Ark of the Covenant' and that the 'Christian Church taught that men and women should love God and if they loved one another it interfered with that, so that it was sinful for men and women to be lovers'; also that the Church taught that 'women were the root of all evil' and that Calvin spoke of 'those who violate parental authority as not men but monsters'. Bunyan, though acknowledged to be personally a kind father, is quoted as 'bidding parents remember that children are cursed creatures'.

At the best, religion appears absurd and antiquated, at the worst a formidable, oppressive obstacle to human progress; reading this outline a child would be bound to consider religion a thing to be derided and avoided.

It will be well for parents and teachers to consider carefully this fact and what it implies.

*Celandine Kennington*

**Research in Education, an Introduction.** *Robert R. Rusk.* (University of London Press. 4s. 6d.)

This book, though short, is a strong plea for research in education, and is an extension of an address delivered to the British Association in 1928. Dr. Rusk implies that England is far behind America in educational research. The best way to introduce the book is to quote its opening passages:

'In former days a course of training in teaching invariably opened with a discussion on the alternative. "Is teaching a science or an art?" But looking back on what then passed for School Management, one is bound to confess that teaching was neither a science nor an art. It was a superstition. A ritual had to be recited and incantations offered if the magical result was to be forthcoming. Thus, in handwriting the pen had to be held lightly between the forefinger and the thumb, with the forefinger slightly bent; it had to pass between the second

and third knuckles of the first finger and to point over the right shoulder; the wrist was to rest flatly on the paper and the copybook to lie parallel to the edge of the desk. Immediately after reciting this ritual the teacher, to make up the attendances of his class, sat down, tilted the register till it made a decided angle with the edge of the desk, turned his hand over till it rested on its side, and pointed the top of the pen towards the window. Ritual and practice here conflicted; one procedure was taught to the pupils and another adopted by the teacher.' Dr. Rusk quotes in this connection Lord Morley's answer when asked whether politics was a science or an art: 'It's a dodge.' Teaching was likewise simple. To remove these reproaches and provide teachers with a scientific technique is the aim of Research in Education.

The reference in a previous issue to Prof. Valentine's book on the Reliability of Examinations shows that the research student must be prepared for surprises. The ordinary teacher may be surprised too. Witness this: 'There is a considerable body of evidence, the result of research in America, to suggest that the reduction in the size of classes does not produce a compensating improvement in the pupil's achievement.'

The Interim Report of the Examinations Inquiry Committee of the New Education Fellowship is subject to scrutiny; so is the Report on the Education of the Adolescent regarding the break at 11 plus. Both reports, however, represent honest work of committees acting according to their lights. It is the 'lights' that Dr. Rusk wants to brighten and he has certainly made out a strong case for the support of research, the results of which could only be of tremendous service to the teacher.

*A. J. Lynch*

**In Defence of Children.** *Dora Russell.* (Hamish Hamilton. 7s. 6d.)

Many people may disagree with much in Dora Russell's new book, but nobody who has anything to do with children can fail to be interested by it.

The child's point of view regarding his home, his parents, his school; his curiosity about marriage and the world about him are notably set out. Adults and children are portrayed in their various relations to one another—and the children have the best of it.

The author mocks steadily at those parents who profess devotion to their children and at the same time deny them their rights as individuals. She pleads indignantly for 'psychologically homeless' children, the victims of divorce or separation, and for those who live in a constant state of tension because of parental disagreements.

Her comments on the part played by the parents and on modern education are of considerable interest, and whether one agrees or disagrees with her views on marriage, social responsibilities and religion, this is a book to be read by every intelligent parent, if only for the stimulus to thought given by the presentation of an unconventional view-point.



**What is Sex?** *Helena Wright.* (Noel Douglas. 5s.)

Dr. Helena Wright's book steers a skilful course between academic dryness and sentimental circumlocution. In it she gives a clear account of the mechanism of sex, presenting human development in its proper perspective against its biological background.

The earlier chapters describe sex in its more primitive stages, and are so well written that the reader becomes absorbed in the story, though his interest in the information given is, thanks to the author's skill, detached rather than personal.

In the last chapter Dr. Wright deals wisely and sympathetically with the sex problems of young people, and this is in many ways the most valuable part of the book.

Parents will welcome the help this book gives them in the task of understanding as well as instructing their children. On the other hand, it may be given, confidently and without comment, to the intelligent adolescent. A cool, interesting and able piece of work.

*Anne Pedler*

**The Child in Home and School.** *Florence Surfleet.* (Headley Bros. 3s. 6d.)

Readers of the *New Era* know that there should be no dividing barriers between the educational experiences of home and school; and they know the significance of the earliest years in childhood's development. Miss Surfleet's book should find a warm welcome from them. Particularly is it to be recommended to those readers for whom the supplement, *Parents and Children*, is now published.

*The Child in Home and School* treats in a fresh, clear, practical manner such topics as obedience, child behaviour, difficult habits, fears, family relationships. It gives the parent helpful suggestions about toys, games, occupations, responsibility and about speech development. It presents its subjects largely through illustrative incidents from child-life. Each chapter closes with questions which readers may answer for themselves or discuss together. This is a book which should be very valuable to a small Parent Group making its first essay at discussing those matters which are the joint concern of home and Nursery School.

*Effie Ryle*

## Books Received

ANCIENT EDUCATION AND ITS MEANING TO US. *J. F. Dobson, M.A.* (Harrap. 5s.) OUR DEBT TO GREECE AND ROME *series.*

*This book is a great deal more interesting than its title and really has some bearing on educational problems of to-day.*

PARENTS AND SEX EDUCATION. *Benjamin C. Gruenberg.* (Viking Press: New York. \$1.00.) *Revised edition of a very useful book.*

SOCIOLOGY AND EDUCATION. *An Analysis of the Theories of Spencer and Ward.* *Elsa Peverly Kimball.* (Columbia University Press: New York. \$4.50.)

REPORT OF THE SIXTH CONFERENCE OF THE INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF UNIVERSITY WOMEN. *Edinburgh, July 27th to August 4th, 1932.*

CHILDREN'S BOOKS AND INTERNATIONAL GOODWILL. *Book List and Report of an Inquiry,* published by the Bureau International d'Education, Geneva.

*This is a very painstaking and important work on children's books compiled from answers to a questionnaire that was sent out to thirty-seven countries.*

ROSES AND KIPPERS: *The Epic of a Council School.* *W. Margrie.* (Watts & Co. 7s. 6d.) *With humorous illustrations by H. Cutner.*

FOOD, HEALTH, VITAMINS. *R. H. A. Plimmer and V. G. Plimmer.* *Fifth Edition.* (Longmans. 3s. 6d.)



# PARENTS : AND CHILDREN

SUPPLEMENT TO "THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL"

PRICE 2d.

VOL. 1. No. 5. DECEMBER 1932

## WHEN YOUR CHILD IS DIFFICULT . . .

WILLIAM MOODIE

It is a very interesting study to watch children growing, and their faculties unfolding, and to the observing parent, this gradual development presents much food for thought.

### Growing by Fits and Starts

One of the most noticeable things about this gradual growth is that it is not steady. At certain stages it proceeds rapidly, while at other times it slows down. During the periods of rapid development, great alterations may take place in a comparatively short space of time; as during the first year, or the period of puberty and adolescence. There are, in addition, other ages when changes, though less noticeable, seem to take place with considerable rapidity, and it is at these stages of change that problems are more likely to occur. If the parent realizes where these milestones are, then he will be less disturbed by minor deviations from the normal, and will be able, by realizing their cause, to combat them, and to help the child over the difficult periods.

### That Important First Year

At birth the child is only imperfectly developed. His physical body is unfinished, his nervous system is incomplete, and during the earlier part of this first year he is physically unable to do certain things. He is incapable, for

instance, of sitting up, or of talking, or of digesting food other than milk, but during that first year he acquires these capabilities. He learns to sit up, to walk about, to digest solid food, and he begins to make sounds which vaguely resemble the words he will use later on. He starts to gesticulate and smile, and to show his feelings by facial expression and movement of his limbs.

In that first year of life, therefore, the child must be carefully tended because he is physically unable to look after himself, and so all must be done for him. His food must be prepared and brought to him. He must be carried from place to place, his wants must be anticipated. The parent during this period is the servant of the child, and does what he asks him. The child, of course, cannot exactly state what he requires, but his wants are usually evident to the understanding parent. The child's only method of signifying his disapproval or dissatisfaction is crying; and when he is dissatisfied he will cry.

### A Contented Babyhood is Important

In the first year, the child feels acutely certain disturbances such as bright light suddenly thrown upon him, sudden noises, jerky movements of the person holding him, and these, as far as possible, should be avoided. In other words, in the first year he should live a life of pleasure and



*Carting Fodder for their own Pets*



*Washing up*

indulgence. There is no doubt that a certain amount of affectionate handling and play are a good thing. The child should not be allowed to lie alone all the time, but should be played with regularly by the parents for certain periods each day. The enjoyment of this play should be mutual, and can do nothing but good so long as the child does not simply become a toy for the parents.

By the time he is eighteen months or two years old, the child's physical structure is almost complete, that is, as far as it will be until he is about eleven, with the exception of course, of the teeth which change about half-way through this period.

#### **The Two-year-old Asserts Himself**

At the age of two he becomes quite a person and begins to recognize that he is a being separate from the rest of the world, that he can have possessions, and that he can dominate society by adopting a threatening and demanding attitude. This attitude is normal in these small children and should not be taken too seriously. It is, however, this attitude of possessiveness which, if strongly developed, makes for difficulty if another child is born. Then the parents' attention is diverted from the child to the new baby, and consequently he feels left out in the cold.

#### **Possessiveness and Jealousy**

Parents should be careful not to make this leaving out too noticeable, and to make things as far as possible easy for the child, giving him his due share of attention. This jealousy situation is less pronounced, if the second child arrives soon after the first, because the possessive attitude is usually not well developed till after the age of two years. As soon as the dominating or demanding tendencies appear, the child should be encouraged to associate with friends and to play with other children, but little can be expected at this early age in the way of group games or combination in play. The small child between one and three plays very

much to himself, even though in company with others.

In cases of only children, it is often a good thing for them to attend a nursery school if such exists in the locality, because there the child will get a certain amount of discipline, and will derive benefit from association with other children of his own size.

#### **On First Going to School**

The age of five is an important milestone, because then as a rule the child goes to school seriously, and makes his first real break with the home. He has to adjust himself to the more impersonal discipline of his teachers as well as to the very personal guidance of his parents. He must also utilize his intelligence in school work, and learn, and remember. He must work with a group. He may already have learned a little before going to school, and so may find the work easy, or on the other hand he may have lived a life of more freedom and learnt little, then he may find the work difficult. But whether they know much or little, children pick up very quickly and fall rapidly in line with their fellows. Schools nowadays are adjusted very carefully to the incoming child, so that no strain is brought to bear upon him, and the normal child has no difficulty in fitting in. The child who has been spoilt, however, and who has been 'over mothered', who has had too much his own way; who has a high idea of



his own importance and consequently does not like to fail, will probably have a difficult time.

### The Child and His Fellows—7-11

At the age of seven there is another milestone. The child is promoted from the infant school. This means a big step because the discipline he will meet is of a very different order from that of the infant school, and his studies are more defined, so that he must fit in more definitely with his group. About this time too, he is beginning to want to be liked by his fellows, and is making up his mind which of them he likes and which he dislikes. All this makes his difficulties, if he has any, more noticeable. He begins to feel the desire to fit in with others, to get an idea of what is 'done' and what is 'not done', and to want to associate with playmates. Parents are apt to think at this time that the child is keeping away from home, going out too much, and taking more interest in his friends than he is in his relatives. But this, after all, is a situation which will persist through life. Our friends are often more interesting than our relatives ever were, at least as we remember them.

### Examinations—Ambitious Parents Beware!

At the age of eleven or so, the question will arise in many instances, of the child passing on to a higher grade school. There may be a scholarship or entrance examination, or at least some basis of selection, so that the better endowed children may be given the chance of higher education. Parents often fail to understand that the passing of examinations does not rest upon the efforts of the child so much as on what is born in him, and that it is quite impossible for certain children to pass examinations, no matter how hard they work. Examinations are very carefully graded so that a child of high intelligence will pass them easily, no matter whether he has actually absorbed certain definite kinds of knowledge or not, but parents must remember that no matter what their own ambitions are

for their children, or what their children's ambitions are on their own account, there is a definite limitation along the lines of intellect.

### The Adolescent—Ungainliness

At about eleven, adolescence begins, a new and difficult step in the life of the child. He changes physically. His limbs grow, but his nervous system does not grow in proportion to his muscular system. He shoots up in height and becomes clumsy and ill-controlled. Girls become more mature in their configuration and outlines. The boy becomes shy and sensitive and the girl even more so. The boy's voice breaks, he hates to speak in public, he becomes awkward and drops things. These are by no means faults in development, they are natural, and are due merely to this discrepancy between the size of the child and his nervous control over his muscles.

The adolescent begins to develop a sense of responsibility and leadership both in games and in work, and also a desire for freedom of action. The individual attempts to free himself from the ordered and sheltered life of the home and to branch out in various directions. Often the first rudimentary love affair takes place. Social adjustment is rather complicated by this dawn of sex attraction and interest, but parents should take these things philosophically and ease the child's difficulties. The adolescent above all needs friends, and mostly friends of



*Washing each other*



his own sex. *Nothing will ever make up for a lack of friendships at the time of adolescence.*

### The Child and the Broken Family

Quite apart from these definite epochs, various other difficulties may arise quite irrespective of age. There is, for instance, the broken family, when one parent or both has been removed by death or some other accident.

In broken families, emotional situations which cause destruction to the mental peace of children arise only when the removal of the parents has connected with it some unpleasant circumstance, when there have been emotional scenes and separation, or divorce, has taken place, or where the parent who has been removed is associated in the mind of the child with unpleasantness, where there is sadness, or where guilt feelings exist.

In these circumstances, the child may very frequently build up an imaginary parent whom he remembers as the real parent, and conflict arises. There will be, as it were, suppressed in the mind, the real memories, and super-

imposed upon them the ideal memories of what they think the parent was, and every reference to the actual parent will bring up the suppressions, with an emotional flood.

### Recognize Your Child's Difficulties

In a brief article such as this, it is possible only to skim over the most outstanding points in these situations, but the important point is for the parent to recognize that these milestones do exist and that distortions of behaviour, or even very peculiar attitudes on the part of children at these times of change, mean little. They will pass in the ordinary course of development. Difficulties may arise, however, if the parent attempts by some method of suasion to smooth out these disturbances and pretend that they do not exist, thereby causing mental strain and troubles which can have permanent results.

[The illustrations to this article come from Miss Lord's Nursery School at Bradford, and are reproduced by kind permission of the National Association of Maternity and Child Welfare, Carnegie House.]



*'The Day that Makes us Happy Makes us Wise'*



## POINTS AT WHICH THE CHILD NEEDS HELP

1. Whenever a change must be made in the even tenor of the child's life difficulties may arise. (Such changes include: weaning, the birth of the next child, first going to school, adolescence.)
2. These changes should not give rise to serious difficulties if the parents are aware of them, and if they have established from the outset a feeling of security and trust in the child's mind.
3. A good driver takes all the difficult places slowly and carefully and does not trust to luck. He learns what his car can do and studies the road. In the same way, a good parent makes it his business to *foresee* the difficulties his child may meet with, and so forestall them.
4. Weaning should not mean a sudden cessation of the intimate warmth and security of the mother's arms. The baby has learnt to count upon feeding time as a recurring pleasure, and the mother should use imagination and loving care in handling this transition period. Otherwise the child may learn to mistrust even those he has trusted most.
5. The birth of the next child is likely to mean a certain upheaval in the life of the small person who has hitherto been the baby. If the latter is already three or four years old he may find it difficult to adjust himself to sharing his world with an infant who will inevitably demand a great deal of care and attention.
6. Unless the mother is aware of the elder child's needs, feelings of jealousy and of 'not being wanted' may arise which will cause endless difficulties in later life.
7. Such difficulties need never occur if the mother will (a) tell the child about the coming of the new baby well in advance, so that he may look forward to it as a happy thing; (b) take pains to show the elder child that he *is* wanted and loved quite as much as before the new baby was born; (c) allow the elder child to share to some extent both in 'minding' and in playing with the new baby.
8. No one willingly exposes children to physical risks—we do not deliberately let them get run over so that they may learn the importance of obedience. It is just as unnecessary and cruel to let them get jealous over the new baby, frightened of the dark, overwhelmed by their first experience of school, and so on.
9. It should no longer be necessary to insist that children must be told about the physical changes at puberty long enough in advance for these to come as no shock to the adolescent. Modern parents have realized the importance of answering frankly and sympathetically their children's questions about sex—from the four-year-old's 'Where did I come from?' onwards. This whole question will be dealt with in a later number of PARENTS AND CHILDREN, but it must be mentioned here that, through wise sex education, parents can prevent the occurrence of many serious difficulties.
10. Don't let us coddle the child, but don't let us fool ourselves into a false sense of security. Growing up is never an entirely easy process, but its problems can all be solved with forethought, knowledge and affection.
11. It is important that your child should feel that he is safe, loved and trusted in his own home. This sense of confidence will stand him in good stead through all the difficulties that beset him between early childhood and adult life.



# CHRISTMAS BOOKS

ANNE PEDLER

EVERY Christmas there is an increasingly bewildering display of children's books, and it becomes more and more difficult for the average adult to choose books for the average child—if only because we are learning that the average child is a creature which does not exist.

For just as shoes and clothes must fit the child's body if it is to develop properly, so books must fit the child's mind: one cannot buy either off the peg. Again, the grown-up mind may take comparatively little harm from trash, because it can discard it so easily. But the child assimilates all it is given, while the grown-up distinguishes approximately between fact and fiction—or is said to do so. The grown-up forgets, the child remembers and believes what it reads.

## Old Favourites

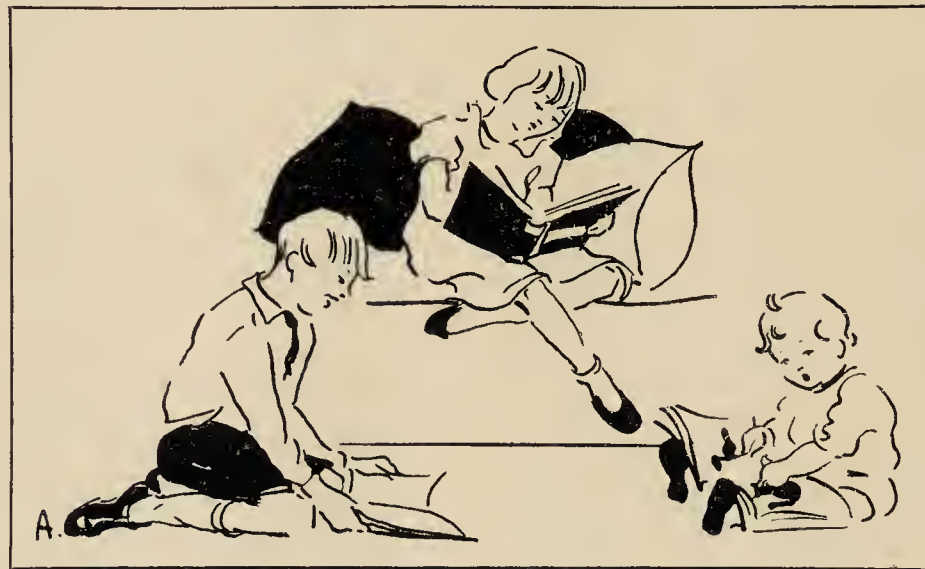
Older children are more easily fitted out with their Christmas books, provided that these are chosen with due regard to their special taste and stages of development. For instance, the child from twelve to fourteen or fifteen with a sense of romance and a keen imagination will find food in the really excellent versions of Scott, Dickens and Kingsley, published by Harrap at 7s. 6d. in their 'Novels Beautiful' series. Anyone who studies the trend of modern book-production will be struck by the increasing care bestowed on make-up and illustration. Modern books appeal to the mind of the child through his appreciative eyes and fingers. The Oxford University Press has brought out most decorative editions of Stevenson's *Treasure Island* and *Kidnapped*, and of Defoe's immortal *Robinson Crusoe*, admirably illustrated, at 10s. 6d. Children to whom lovely and fantastic illustrations make a special appeal will value

the series illustrated by Arthur Rackham, including *Alice in Wonderland*, *Æsop's Fables* and *Where the Blue Begins*. They are published by Heinemann and their prices range from 7s. 6d.

## The Modern World

Books such as these will hold their readers'

attention to better purpose than the vivid annuals and conventional school stories so often chosen by the uninitiated. Or, if the child is more interested in real worlds than imaginary ones, there are the books of exploration, science and modern adventure, such as *A Book of Polar*



*Exploration*, *The Story of Mankind*, *The Wonder Book of Electricity* and *A Nature Puzzle Book*. The prices of these range conveniently from 5s., and there is also a particularly good book, *Recent Heroes of Modern Adventure* (Harrap, 7s. 6d.), which tells, among other stories, how F. S. Smythe climbed Kanchenjunga and how Sir Malcolm Campbell challenged the speed record at Daytona.

For the intellectually curious child and the very modern parent there is *An Outline for Boys and Girls and their Parents* (Gollancz, 8s. 6d.), which summarizes the modern outlook on, and knowledge of science, economics, history, the arts and the future. This is hardly a book to be given at random, but many children and enterprising adults will welcome it. Another important book is *The Children's Omnibus* (Gollancz, 7s. 6d.), edited by Sylvia Lynd and containing stories of all kinds for all ages. Two other good presents for the imaginative child are *Kings and Queens* by Eleanor and Herbert Farjeon (Gollancz, 6s.), and *Tom Tiddler's Ground*, a charming anthology of poems chosen by Walter de la Mare and



published by Collins at 5s. *Mumbudget*, by Helen Simpson (Heinemann, 5s.), tells of a small boy called William and his adventures among leprechauns, fairies and will-o'-the-wisps and remains an established favourite. *Moonshine and Magic* by Alison Uttley (Faber & Faber, 6s.), should also be mentioned.

#### Matter-of-Fact Stories

There are perhaps more books suited to children from six to ten than for any other age, and it is important to remember that at this stage children probably prefer rather matter-of-fact stories about adventures within the bounds of possibility before the picturesque fantasies which charm the parent. Two delightful examples of the former are *Emil and The Detectives* and *Alice and Thomas and Jane*. One combines excitement and absurdity most successfully, and the other has the advantage of drawings by a child, Laurian Jones. There is another book by Erich Kastner this year, *Annalouise and Anton, or The Wicked Governess* (Cape, 7s. 6d.), which is likely to be as popular as *Emil and The Detectives*, while John Buchan in *The Magic Walking Stick* (Hodder & Stoughton, 6s.) has written a sensational story for children.

#### Animal Stories

Then there are the animal stories, from a very modern Russian story of a crocodile in a fur coat, to the rather humdrum farm-yard sagas. Animal tales especially are probably better if they are not too far-fetched, and there is a number of books which tell an enthralling story and give the child some idea of animal life. For instance, for the older child there are the *Mousie* books, *Moorland Mousie* and *Older Mousie* by 'Golden Gorse' (Country Life, 10s. 6d.), beautifully illustrated. There is *The Midnight Steeple Chase* by Moyra Charlton (5s.), and *Charlie the Fox* by John Budden (Country Life, 6s.). For the specially dog-loving, *Cecil Aldin's Book* has been compiled and published by Eyre and Spottiswoode at 6s. For the younger ones, too, there are the charming books *Yap Yap* and *Beetles and Things*, both by Oliver Bowen, and published by Elkin Mathews and Marrot.

#### Modern Classics

Besides these, there is a group of stories about children and their toys. To the child these stories are real, because they give him, ready-made, the sort of play adventures which he usually thinks out for himself. If they have a fault, it is that they save the child the trouble of inventing, and play based on them is apt to be repetitive. The perennial Christopher Robin books come under this heading, *When We Were Very Young*, *Now We Are Six* and *The House at Pooh Corner*, as does *Peter Duck* by Arthur Ransome (Cape, 7s. 6d.). Different again, but equally popular, are the *Dr. Doolittle* series, and there is to be a new one this year, *Gub-Gub's Book*, costing 5s.

#### Stories for the Very Young

As for the very young, anything up to four, choosing books for them is a delicate operation. Fairy tales, involving impossible creatures and decorated with terrifying pictures, are of doubtful value. It might be argued that animal stories which credit the creatures with clothes and conversations are equally improbable, but there is a comforting familiarity about the clothes that the child himself is made to wear, the houses like his own, and the conversations which the animals hold. A rabbit in a coat and sitting on a chair is a funny idea, but not a frightening one, and so, to a child, the *Peter Rabbit* tales have a truth of their own which fairy tales have not. There are some particularly attractive books of this type just now: *The Polar Piggy* (Murray, 5s.), *Here Bingo* at 4s. 6d., published by Appleton, and all the books by Thornton Burgess; *The Adventures of Poor Mrs. Quack*, *The Adventures of Old Mr. Toad* and *The Adventures of Prickly Porky*, all published by Lane at 2s. each.

It is interesting to note how juvenile stories reflect the tendency of adult fiction. Many end indeterminately and some, like *Polar Piggy*, quite sadly. Givers of presents who do not wish their children depressed should glance at the end.

#### Format and Illustration

If books must fit the child's mind, they must also please his hands. When one is just learning to turn over, one prefers a book which



will lie flat with pages which are big and stout and turn easily. But a child who is clever with his hands will take pride in handling a small book. In the same way, print and binding and illustrations all deserve careful consideration. Heaven alone knows how much adolescent bad taste is fostered by the crude illustrations of nursery favourites. Simple decorative effects, clear colours and gay and absurd drawings are best. This year there is an increasing

tendency to escape from the over-elaborate, which is perhaps another reflection of an adult tendency, in this case an admirable one, towards simplicity.

It is impossible to quote all the excellent books offered to our children this Christmas. But even if all of them were listed it would still be possible to make mistakes, for it is not enough merely to know your books. You must also know your child.



## POINTS FOR DISCUSSION

1. If your child is jealous of a younger brother or sister (a) what mistakes have you made in your treatment of him hitherto? (b) How will you set about to change matters now?
2. Given that your child is obviously happier at home than at school: (a) Do you blame yourself or the school? (b) How do you propose to deal with the situation?
3. Given that your child is obviously more co-operative at school than at home: (a) How do you account for this? (b) Do you consider that anything should be done about it? (c) If so, what?
4. In what ways do you think that, by talking things out together, parents and teachers could give better guidance to the children?
5. What happenings in the life of your child have caused him definite anxiety? How have you reassured him? Could you have prevented the anxiety?
6. Will adequate information about sex given in early childhood prevent emotional disturbances in adolescence? If not, what is the point of it?
7. Security and protection are essential to the young child. One of the main endeavours of parents should be to develop independence and responsibility in their children. Are both these statements true? Can they be reconciled or are they contradictory?

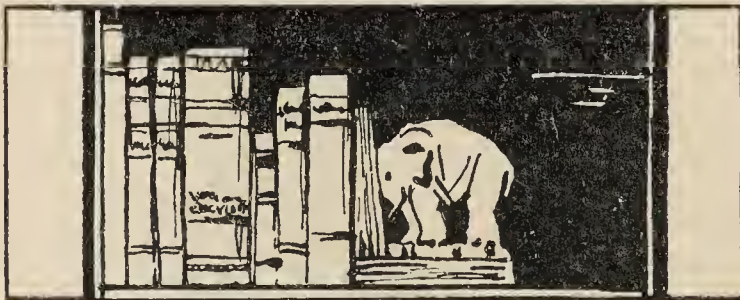
## HELPFUL BOOKS

NEW BABES FOR OLD. *Winifred de Kok*. (Gollancz. 5s.) This book deals in nineteen short chapters with the chief problems that arise in the first few years of life.

PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT. *E. R.*

*Groves*. (Longmans, New York. \$1.40.) Ex-

cellent for its discussion of the social aspects of child and adolescent behaviour. The chapters on emotion are particularly good.



THE CHILDREN WE TEACH. *Susan Isaacs*. (University of London Press. 3s. 6d.)

Deals with the problems in the early years at school—7 to 11.











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